Public Personnel Review

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Public Personnel Review . . . .

The quarterly journal of the Public Personnel Association provides a medium for the publication of factual material, and for materials that may represent divergent ideas, judgments, and opinions. The views expressed in articles and other contributions are those of the authors, and may not be construed as reflecting the views of the Association or the editors unless so stated.

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editorial

Our Readers ARE Writing

In the January issue of *Public Personnel Review*, we invited our readers to share with the editors some of the responsibility for increasing the value of *PPR*. We asked that our readers suggest subjects for articles and, perhaps, the authors to write them; further, we invited expressions of agreement or disagreement with viewpoints subscribed to in articles published in the Journal. Again we invite our readers to slip into the editorial toga for a moment to reflect with us on the *Public Personnel Review*.

This year you have read more articles on more different subjects in more pages than in any previous volume of the *Review*. A real effort has been made, in each issue, to provide something of value and interest to the varying tastes and requirements of our readership.

So much for the quantity and variety of the material we have published. But what can be said of the extent to which the contents are read, and the degree to which readers are able to apply, in their daily work, the ideas, the philosophies, or the experiences described in the various articles and feature sections?

Unfortunately for editors (and readers!) there is as yet no mechanical meter available that provides an automatic measure of the value of a publication; we must depend upon more subjective devices to get an estimate—a pretty rough one, at best—of how well a publication meets its goals. One of these not-too-satisfactory methods for estimating a publication's pulling power is to draw certain conclusions from the kind of reader reaction that comes to editors on a purely voluntary basis; at least that's what we thought until we began hearing from members after they received the July issue of *PPR*.

Something in that issue sparked a satisfying number of you. We feel we have finally established literary rapport with our readers, and, beginning with this issue, we have included a feature section, *Our Readers Write*, which we hope will stimulate you to continue to share your thinking on *PPR* with us.

You will note considerable variation in the type of statements quoted in the new section. Several refer to the broad policy matters discussed in the July editorial; others applaud the straightforward article on the need for reform and control elements in a civil service board or commission. The letter from Carey Shaw, Jr., represents a thoughtfully critical comment on *PPR* as an institution. Yet another commentary, dealing with the technical aspects of an article in the January issue of *PPR*, was so thorough in its analysis that we thought it best to give it the status and space of an article itself. ("A Commentary on Multiple-Choice Test Item Criteria" on page 296.)

The quotations appearing in *Our Readers Write* do not represent all of the reader reactions we've received. But they do represent a good cross-section, and some of them are expected to pique your interest to the point where you will check back on earlier issues of *PPR*.

We conclude with these thoughts: *Public Personnel Review* this year has made progress as a stimulator of thinking in public personnel administration. In the future, the expressions of reader response and of divergent viewpoints can help the editors to publish a more useful and interesting journal.

What do *you* think?

Kenneth O. Warner
EDITOR

Meet the Authors

Dorothy C. Adkins

. . . author of *A Commentary on Multiple-Choice Test Item Criteria* is Professor and Chairman of the Department of Psychology of the University of North Carolina. Previously, she had 12 years of test development experience with The University of Chicago, the Social Security Board, and the U. S. Civil Service Commission. Dr. Adkins has been Managing Editor of *Psychometrika* and is among the editorial consultants of that journal, *Educational and Psychological Measurement,* and *Public Personnel Review;* she was senior author of "Construction and Analysis of Achievement Tests" and "Factor Analysis of Reasoning Tests." She has been an officer in state, regional, and national psychological associations.

Richard Block

. . . author of *Milwaukee's Police Aide Program a Success* is former chairman of the Milwaukee Fire and Police Commission, appointed by Mayor Frank P. Zeidler. He has worked extensively in civic activities and is the founder of the Police Aide program. He has worked with Boy Scouts, the Office of Price Administration, and was a member of the Grifenhagen Survey Commission. He has been an employee member of the Milwaukee Area Sheet Metal Joint Apprenticeship and Training Committee for the past 20 years, is secretary of the Milwaukee Area Metal Fabricators Joint Apprenticeship and Training Committee, and is an assistant business representative of the Sheet Metal Workers' Local 24, AFL-CIO.

Georges E. Gauthier

. . . author of *The Canadian Pay Research Bureau* is Director of the Bureau. He received his Master's Degree in Commerce from the University of Montreal; also from the same University he received his "Licence en Sciences Sociales Economiques et Politiques." He has been with the Civil Service Commission since 1943. Immediately prior to taking his new post in September, 1957, he had been Assistant Director of Organization and Classification for 5 years.

Louis J. Kroeger

. . . author of *Broadening Our Professional Horizons* heads the management consulting firm of Louis J. Kroeger and Associates and is president of the Public Management Research Institute. After a brief war-time service with the United States Bureau of Budget and the Civil Service Commission, he was executive officer for rationing in O.P.A. and, later, Director of Administrative Services for O.P.A. Prior to the war he was Executive Officer of the California State Personnel Board, served 2 terms as chairman of the Western Regional Conference of the then Civil Service Assembly, and 3 years on the Assembly's Executive Council.

As a lecturer on the staff of the Bureau of Public Administration, University of California, he helped shape one of the earliest training programs in Public Personnel Administration.

J. Kenneth Mulligan

. . . author of *The Federal Wage Board Program* was appointed in August to his present position as Executive Vice-Chairman of the Interagency Advisory Group of the United States Civil Service Commission. For the last 2 years he has been responsible for wage board coordination for the federal government and will continue with this assignment. Previously he was with the Navy Department wage and classification program and in various personnel posts in federal and local government. He served as nonpaid Chairman of the Personnel Board for the Town of Wakefield, Mass., from 1953-56. Last year he was Chairman of the Compensation Work Group of the Society for Personnel Administration.

Richard B. Piatt

. . . author of *Nationwide Recruitment for a Personnel Director* has been Director of Finance for the Metropolitan St. Louis Sewer District since the start of its operation in 1954. He set up the District's personnel program and served also as its Personnel Director until the employment of a full-time Director as outlined in this article. From 1951-1954, he served as Director of Business Administration, Department of Mental Health, State of Kentucky, where he also organized the personnel program and served as its head. Prior personnel experience includes a short stint as Chief Examiner for the Civil Service Commission of the City of Louisville, Kentucky.

Harry W. Reynolds, Jr.

. . . author of *Developing Middle Management* is Assistant Professor at the School of Public Administration of the University of California. At USC, he has served as training director and administrator of the middle management development program for federal employees since its inception in 1957 while continuing his teaching in the fields of management and personnel. He has also acted as consultant on personnel problems to several federal, state, and local government agencies. Dr. Reynolds has contributed articles on management development to the *Public Administration Review* and other journals.

Broadening Our Professional Horizons

Louis J. Kroeger

Advancement of the personnel field can be more satisfying and productive if we look outward as well as upward.

I WOULD LIKE TO SUMMARIZE and comment on what I have heard discussed by the speakers at this 1958 meeting of the Public Personnel Association's Western Regional Conference. Rather than only a "playback" of what I have heard, I would like to make my comments more in the nature of an editorial, a rebuttal, a critique, and a forecast.

First, a few observations about the nature of horizons. "Broader Horizons" has been our theme this total meeting.

Second, the need "to better understand public responsibility and aims." In the definition of the purpose of the conference, those words were used.

Third, as a general summary of these very valuable discussions, I would like to recall attention to what we have heard here which most helps us broaden our own horizons.

The horizon, of course, is the limit of our view. In a sense, that means that our horizons are the limits of our understanding. So we must move up and move ahead in order to broaden that view and thereby broaden our understanding of our responsibility and our job.

Since "horizon" is a matter of viewpoint, we can broaden our own horizon and enrich our own viewpoint by sharing viewpoints with others. One of the best points that has come out of this conference, one that has been reiterated at all of the sessions, is the growing realization that we have a great deal in common with other people and that our success in our field is going to depend upon further sharing of viewpoints and responsibilities with those other people.

John Monk made the point as well as any today, when he spoke about moving into a new neighborhood, where he found a much greater satisfaction in living because he and his neighbors agreed not to have any fences.

When you put up a fence, you set a very narrow horizon. You don't see beyond the top of that fence.

Too many in public personnel administration have lived in the backyard which is limited by the fences of their own construction. It has given them a narrow view of their responsibility. It has been unfortunate and at times it has led to most unhappy consequences.

We should go home and tear down those fences. The practical step of tearing down the fence—or never erecting the fence if we can avoid it—is a long way toward understanding the other fellow better, living with him on a more harmonious basis, and thereby broadening our own horizons.

Someone else made the point that we have had too much emphasis on conflict. That point was well taken too. Personnel people, in years gone by, have been too much interested in winning fights with others, rather than in finding a basis of common understanding with them. If, out of this conference, we can go back with the will and the means to find a basis for peace and friendship with the operating people with whom we have to work, and with the politicians with whom we have to work, we will have gained a great deal.

One Step at a Time

To see new horizons by reaching the highest point of understanding, we have to take several important steps. What has always made it difficult to discuss our problems in common terms and to reach any common agreements in this field is that we

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This is a commentary on the discussions of the proceedings at the Western Regional Conference of the Public Personnel Association, Vancouver, British Columbia, June 4, 5, and 6, 1958.

are not always at the same step at the same time. We operate in different political circumstances and in many other varying circumstances that make it impossible for us to go forward together.

Any public jurisdiction must start its personnel program by first establishing the security of the program itself. We must establish the protection of that program against political interference, assure adequate financial support for it, and all of that. That foundation must be established, that step must be taken, before we can go one step higher to see a little broader horizon.

The next step in reaching out for broader horizons is the development of our own skills and techniques. We can't do big, broad, brave things until we first have the technical means at our own command.

We need next to understand the staff role, which was defined so adequately for us at the luncheon talk today. When we have security, when we understand our business, then we have to understand our role in relation to other people.

Next, we have to understand the broader objectives of the program people with whom we operate.

Finally, when we have taken all those other steps in order, we can understand the broadest possible implications of the social, economic, and political systems in which we work, thus fulfilling our ultimate purpose in helping achieve the goals of our society.

But Not by Oneself

We can reach these plateaus, we can see these broader horizons, only if we advance hand in hand with many others, all of whom have a common purpose.

The people themselves are concerned with the quality and character of their public servants. Their elective representatives must be taken into this program. We must work with the governor, with the mayor, with the aldermen and councilmen, and all the rest.

The top administrators are involved; supervisory personnel is involved; and certainly all of the employees themselves are involved. There has been a heartening development at this meeting, as at others in the recent past, of better understanding between the personnel administrators and the employee organizations.

And when I say that "we" must do these things, I want to emphasize the point that was made at a number of the sessions: that the "we" of which we speak is an all-embracing "we." This includes the commissioners, the administrators, and the technicians; it includes those who are in central personnel agencies, those in departmental personnel offices, and we who help now and then as consultants. It is all of us, whether we are generalists or specialists.

In whatever identity we have in this field of personnel administration, all of us together need to work together in harmony toward these broader horizons.

"Don't Rock the Boat"

We have made long strides toward these higher goals. I think back to the 1931 Western Regional Conference of the then Civil Service Assembly, which I can best describe as a very small gathering of frustrated people who were concerned with a single thing. That was security—their own security.

They were wondering, "How do we keep this civil service idea alive? How do we keep the politicians from gaining back what they have had to surrender?"

Here, in contrast, we see a large group of competent and confident people who have gained that security in their profession which encourages them to dare to challenge some of the old concepts, to dare to question the way things have been done in the past, and to dare to suggest new and better ways of doing them.

I well remember that in the early days of my career, when I had the audacity to suggest that we were doing something wrong, and that we should question and re-examine, I was told by my elders to quit rocking the boat, that we must never admit to the enemy that there was any weakness or flaw in the system.

I have never been willing to subscribe to that. If we don't accept and recognize our own weaknesses, admit them publicly, we are in no position to correct them.

It is encouraging that there has not been

a single voice raised in this entire conference to say "for goodness sake, let's not rock the boat." Instead, the attitude has been one of critical self-examination. It bespeaks a maturity and advancement that means we are prepared to look to the broader horizons.

Look Beyond Personnel Administration

Well, so much on horizons as such. Now I want to say a word or two about "the need to better understand public responsibilities and aims." A year ago I suggested more emphasis in this program on this particular theme, because the field of public personnel administration has reached the point where we need to go beyond simply considering our own problems and our own techniques.

We need to gain a better understanding of what the broader aspects of public responsibility are. We need to look beyond the horizons of personnel administration to the broader horizons of public service.

The keynote speaker emphasized the importance of this point. He stressed the fact, which we all know but need to be reminded of, that our social and economic system is growing in complexity; that government is becoming an institution of growing importance in this system; and that, if we are to play a useful role in this more important government service, we must help fulfill the goals of both the political institutions and the administrative institutions we serve.

We have tended in the past to acknowledge the responsibility of the administrator, and his interests in what we do, mainly by asking an administrator now and then to speak to us about what he expects from his personnel organization. My thought is that we must go far beyond that; that we shouldn't be interested simply in what he expects from his personnel organization, but rather we must be interested in what he expects to accomplish himself. We must understand both what the administrator wants to accomplish and what the politician wants to accomplish, not in personnel management, but in their own fields of responsibility. It is only when we have a full understanding of their objectives that we can then apply our skills and our systems to help achieve that purpose.

We Need Politics

I want to repeat again the importance of understanding political as well as administrative objectives. I am sorry if any here think "politics" a word. We live in a political system; we must understand political objectives.

I recall an instance during our work in the Philippines, when I was addressing a group of employees, and one of the Filipinos rose at the end of the meeting to ask, "When you are through with your work here, will you have shown us the way to eliminate politics from our government?"

I said, "No; we will not show you the way to eliminate politics from your government. First of all, I don't know how to do it. In the second place, if I knew how to do it, I wouldn't tell you, because it would be a fatal mistake.

"We are fighting cold wars and hot wars to preserve democratic institutions. The day when we eliminate politics from our way of life is the day we will have lost that fight for democracy." It is an essential ingredient in the system to which we all subscribe.

We must not shun political interests. We must learn more about political objectives in order that we can serve them in the best and highest way.

Reaching Toward Others' Goals

But the most important of our day-to-day concerns is that we must understand administrative objectives.

I had hoped that there might be even more than we had here of the administrator participating to tell us what he aspires to in his own field. We got a certain amount of it.

Mr. Rowlands, in his talk from the city manager's viewpoint, told us about some of the problems ahead, such as the problems of urban growth.

Two or three other people have spoken about the new problems which will confront us with automation.

I hope that in the years ahead, we can hear more from the mayors, the governors, the members of parliament, and the members of congress, the police chiefs, the planning directors, and others of like responsibility, about what they are trying to achieve,

so that we can better gear our efforts to reach their goals.

Most of you now have a considerable command of your own techniques; you have generally gained the security you need against political interference; and most of us are reasonably well supported financially. You can afford now to look to these other goals and to help to achieve them.

Our Broadening Views—

Time keeps running by. Let me devote what remains to a summary of what I think are some of the more significant points covered in this conference—the specifics that seem to me to typify the realization of our view of the broader horizon.

—on asking questions

One of the encouraging aspects of the whole conference from that standpoint is that we have heard many more questions asked than we have had answered. I wouldn't worry too much about that if I were you. I think it is a healthy sign.

It shows that we are not satisfied with our answers. It shows that we are now at a stage of security and advancement where we are willing to test, and inquire, and seek for new and better ideas.

Thank goodness, we haven't stopped learning. We are willing to progress; and we will progress as long as we are willing to ask more questions than we can answer.

—on the whole man

Many of the discussions have shown that we finally realize that, in our personnel practices, we are hiring and dealing with the whole man. We have gotten beyond the idea that we are engaging a particular skill for 8 hours a day and that we are not concerned beyond finding out if the man has that skill, behaves himself on the job, and performs competently for those 8 hours a day.

We are engaging the whole man—all of his aspirations, his hopes, his fears and everything else about him, including much of what takes place in his private life as well as in his work life. All must be taken into account in our administration of personnel matters. We can stop short of snooping in matters of personnel conduct, even while broadening our understanding of the importance of the total human being, and of the total work group.

—on statistics

I, for one, was greatly encouraged by the extent to which everybody here happily picked up such phrases as "the tyranny of statistics," and "the fallacy of nose counting," and "mistakes surveys" and all of that sort of thing. This represents another step forward in this profession.

We recognize that we are not just a bunch of "me-tooers," who go around and see how many other people do something like we do and are most comfortable if we find ourselves right smack in the middle of the average of what everybody else is doing. We are not content to accept that any longer. We are more interested in digging in and solving our own problems in the light of their own characteristics.

—on research

At the same time that we were discounting the importance of such statistics as "nose counting," other sessions were showing that there is a growing interest in getting more facts. These points are not inconsistent. There is a difference between simply making a statistical summary of existing practices and doing purposeful research, which gets the facts required to solve a particular problem.

The import of all these discussions is that we have gotten away from the tyranny of the general statistics and have asserted instead our mastery of the more specific arts of research and of administration based on fact instead of opinion.

—on policy shaping

We have heard a good deal of emphasis, in several of the sessions, on the importance of personnel administration in helping to shape general management policy.

Heretofore we have often been concerned with how we could find out what management policy is. We wondered if we dared to ask what management policy was, or whether we had any business doing so. This

time we have talked boldly about our role in helping shape that policy.

Now, we have to be careful that we don't try to take the place of the chief executive and the directors of the departments. But I think these discussions recognized that there are ways of participating in the shaping of management decisions and management programs without appearing to be interfering or dictatorial.

—on optimum standards

All the discussions have been characterized by a new attention to higher standards in public service. As I think back over years gone by, I recall we talked a great deal about minimum requirements for this, that, and the other job. There was more talk this time about *optimum* standards.

I didn't hear the phrase "optimum standards" as such, but the import of much of the discussion was that we have raised our sights to what is the best we can possibly get, rather than keeping them leveled on what is the least we can get by with. That, again, typifies the reaching of a new horizon.

Charley Terry, in the session on management development, made the point that the top jobs are for those who earn them. Top jobs are not just waiting for the automatic advancement of those who have waited around the longest. They are for the deserving.

In fact, the management development session encouraged me at a point to foresee the day in public administration where, in recruiting for top management positions, we will be able to change our techniques from one of limited choice from among those who are willing to compete for a job, to the methods industry often uses in key executive placement, where the job seeks the man.

We should be able to go out and look aggressively for the right man for the job; not simply wait for the applicants and then take their measure and choose the best of what is offered.

If I had more time I could cite some very interesting examples of recent cases in public service in which the job has gone after the man. The fellow that finally took the job started out denying that he was interested and refusing to file an application. Yet if you recruit intelligently, you can get such a reluctant one to take the job.

—on laws and rules

The next point, in a sense, is a negative way of saying we have reached a new horizon. One of the most comforting features of this whole conference was that I didn't hear anybody mention a law or rule to justify an action. We have talked about objectives and principles, where once we would have merely reported what our laws permit or prohibit. We found such comfort in those laws that it often seemed we were afraid of any responsibility. Happily, we have heard none of that here.

Morgan Odell, in opening the session on "Achieving Management's Objectives," invited those present to imagine for the time being they didn't have a rule book. I would like to invite you to go on back home and continue to forget that you've got a rule book. Or if you find the rule book is unavoidable, do everything possible to live by the highest spirit of that rule book, and not by its letter alone. The covers of a book can become a mighty narrow horizon.

—on effectiveness

Several sessions were centered on "effectiveness." How effective are we in this field?

We are showing interest in positive ways of measuring our effectiveness. We want to know whether we have indeed reached the heights to which we aspire. We discussed the ways of better measuring the effectiveness of the individual, of the personnel program, of the total program.

Of course, that discussion led inevitably to the point where we heard of administrators who had been so "effective" they got fired, perhaps for being too good and too far ahead.

—on being fired

I want to add a point. I was on the verge of doing it when they blew the whistle to end that particular meeting.

I want to say a few words in favor of getting fired. I can speak from personal experience; and I want to say that it is a rich, rewarding experience.

It does not necessarily represent the failure of an individual or of a program. Some

at the session in question seemed to say that, if you do all the things which are generally regarded as effective, and yet in the end lose your job, you weren't really effective at all.

I doubt that that is right. That idea is not in harmony with our basic concepts in many other fields.

The Christian faith, for example, attaches great significance to the crucifixion. It symbolizes the failure of a mission in one sense; yet the crucifixion of Christ is not regarded in religion as failure, but as ultimate success.

The martyrs are sainted. Every nation has its national hero—most of them dead heroes; heroes who died in defense of a cause. The star player of the baseball team is often applauded the loudest when he makes the sacrifice play. He sacrifices his own batting average in order to advance another runner one base.

And so it is, I think, in public service, that, from time to time, someone must make the supreme sacrifice, knowing that he is contributing to the effectiveness of the program. The sacrifice may at least call public attention to what is going on and thus draw the whole program back toward the path to greater effectiveness.

I wanted to say that simply because I didn't want those who heard that particular discussion to go home thinking, "What's the use; if I get too good all it is going to do is get me out in front where I can be picked off." Go ahead and get picked off. There is a better job waiting for you somewhere. You will be honored for it.

Just don't get fired for being too bad. Get fired for being too right.

—on responsibility

There was frequent mention of the line department responsibility in personnel management. There has been a growing acceptance of the point in recent years; but it was particularly pointed up here in the discussions of safety and of management development.

It suggests that we must look to further participation with management in showing operating officials how to accept their role in personnel management. It also means that we are getting willing, finally, to relinquish through proper delegation some of what we have long regarded as our sole responsibilities.

—on technique

The breakfast session summary meeting showed us that, while we are willing to accept higher responsibilities to see broader horizons and to head for more advanced goals, we still have a very lively interest in the specific details of our personnel techniques. Those breakfast sessions were the one time in the conference when we were concerned exclusively with our techniques. It is good to see that we still have that balance. No matter how high we set our sights nor how broad our vision is, we must keep our feet on firm policy ground and our hands gripped on sound technical processes.

These are very broad summaries of many important points in which it has not been possible to credit all of the wise sayings of all the able people who contributed to this conference. There are a couple of general observations I would like to make in concluding.

We must remember, of course, when we go home from this conference, that we can't take back and apply literally in our own circumstances all of what we have heard here. We are not all working at the same degree of progress or in the same atmosphere of understanding. We vary in size, in staff, and in every other circumstance. We have got to adapt these ideas before we apply them. We can't simply adopt them, wrap them up in a package, take them through customs at the border, and install them intact.

On the other hand, the fact that you can't simply take all of these good ideas and apply them immediately should not be your excuse for not even trying. Too often, I am afraid, we have done that.

We have said, "Well, that was all fine stuff; and that was a great speech that Johnnie made up there at the conference, but he wasn't talking about our circumstances. Things are different here, so we just can't get away with such ideas."

Well, you *can* try it. You may not succeed at first, but at least you can set new goals toward which you will work until your horizons are as broad as the other fellow's may already be. You must, in your own locality

and circumstance, take the more active role in working toward ever higher objectives.

Learned Authority? Crackpot?

Depending on local conditions, you may be called any one of a number of things. If you go home and preach the doctrine you have heard here, in circumstances in which people are generally willing to accept what you say, they will hail you as a learned authority in your field.

If, when you say these same things, your audience isn't quite ready to accept them, they are apt to call you a radical for saying exactly what in another place would gain you the crown of learned authority.

If you say them in circumstances in which they are actively unwilling to accept the idea, you are a crackpot.

And if you say them in circumstances in which they don't even believe they are ever going to be possible, then you are merely an idealist, a dreamer, a visionary.

In any case, go ahead and say them. Be called an idealist, a crackpot, a radical, or a learned authority, whatever it earns you—but start preaching these doctrines, start setting these goals.

Finally, as a part of the summation of this conference, I want to do some judging of conference effectiveness.

From my viewpoint, and I think I can speak for all those here in saying this to Chairman Hugh Morrison and our other Canadian hosts, I would certainly judge this an unqualified success as a conference, on several counts.

Among all the Western Regional Conferences we have had, it has been one of the best planned and best managed. Every session started and stopped as scheduled.

I would call it a success on the count that we have heard a great deal of intelligent and articulate discussion. Programs were not only planned well, but speakers were carefully chosen among those who had a message to tell.

Certainly the surroundings in which we have been privileged to enjoy this conference have been the most comfortable; the diversions which have been supplied for us, and which are yet to be supplied, have been entirely agreeable; and we have had an opportunity to renew old friendships and form new ones.

The whole conference has been held in an atmosphere of such complete international understanding and amity that we can hope we are setting an example for the rest of the world, especially for its diplomats, of how we can all live and work together with our thoughts dedicated to our common problems rather than to our differences.

New Era in Municipal Communications . . .

Local government radio is now available for all municipal functions. The Federal Communications Commission has approved some 50 channels for use by local governments (municipal, county, and state) to handle the administrative radio traffic demanded of these governments in this age of electronics.

This is also a boon for small municipalities which now can have a single radio system for police, fire, public works, and any other function necessary. The radio frequencies will be available June 30, 1958. They include 15 frequencies in the 45 megacycle band, 49 frequencies in the 450 megacycle band.

The ruling is the result of an AMA petition for the increased channels. Robert McNutt, City Manager of Harper Woods, Michigan, and Chairman of AMA's Committee on Communications and Radio, presented the municipal case to the FCC. This action by the FCC heralds the start of a new era in municipal communications providing better service for all taxpayers.—From *American Municipal News,* May 31, 1958.

The Canadian Pay Research Bureau

Georges E. Gauthier

Getting accurate information as a basis for pay determination requires careful organization. This is how they do it in Canada.

A YEAR AGO, the Civil Service Commission of Canada announced that a Pay Research Bureau was being established to provide the government, the commission, and civil service staff associations with a central source of "objective information on compensation and working conditions in government, business, and industry." The announcement, which indicated that formation of the Bureau had "the fullest sympathy and support of the government," was well received by staff representatives and attracted widespread interest as evidence of an important change in the machinery of pay determination in the Canadian civil service. In this article, an attempt will be made to describe briefly the origin, purpose, organization, and program of the Bureau.

Complexities of Pay Determination

Pay determination in the Canadian civil service is a complex process in which several institutions and agencies play a part.[1] Under the Civil Service Act, responsibility for recommending rates of pay rests with the Civil Service Commission, which has an independent status and reports directly to Parliament.

To become effective, recommendations of the Commission must be approved by the government (formally the "Governor General in Council"), which has to recommend to Parliament appropriation of the funds involved. In practice, the authority to approve such recommendations is normally exercised on behalf of the government by Treasury Board, a standing committee of ministers, presided over by the Minister of Finance and served by a permanent staff of experts in the Department of Finance. The implementation of recommendations requiring increased expenditures depends, of course, on the provision by Parliament of the necessary funds.

Responsibility and authority are similarly divided when it comes to decisions on fringe benefits and other conditions of employment, although many of these are either fixed by statute or left to the discretion of the deputy heads of departments.

In formulating its recommendations, the Civil Service Commission is guided by the established government policy on the compensation of the civil service. This policy, which can be traced back to the period immediately after the First World War, was recently expressed in the following terms by The Right Honourable John G. Diefenbaker, Prime Minister of Canada, in an address delivered in Ottawa, May 1, 1958:

> For many years it has been generally accepted that two main priciples should guide the determination of salaries in the Service. First, the salaries must be enough to do the job, that is to attract enough of the right kind of men and women into the Service and keep them in it; second, they must be fair as between Civil Servants and people outside the Service, the taxpayers if you will, which means that the salaries we pay for any class of work should be comparable with those paid by private employers for similar classes of work, taking into account the other terms of employment that are necessary to make a fair comparison. I think these principles should continue to guide us.

In formulating its recommendations to the government, the Commission is bound to have regard, as well, to the importance of "internal relativity;" that is to say, to proper relationship between rates of remuneration for various classes of work within the civil service.

Obviously, application of this policy

[1] The process described applies to classified or salaried employees only; i.e., those employed under the provisions of the Civil Service Act.

makes essential a knowledge of the rates of pay and conditions of employment prevailing in private industry. Until last September, the function of acquiring such knowledge was performed in the Organization and Classification Branch of the Commission, which was not organized on a formal basis, nor staffed primarily for this purpose.

Origin of the Bureau

Developments in the period following the Second World War placed a growing emphasis on the importance of pay research and ever-increasing pressures on the existing research facilities of the Commission. Rapid growth of the Canadian population and economy; a general increase in the range of government activities; the continuing need for a large defense establishment; these and other factors led to a steady increase in the size, and a striking change in the character, of the civil service.

The number of employees subject to the provisions of the Civil Service Act grew from 46,000 in March, 1939, to over 133,-000 in September, 1957. Over the same period, the assumption by the government of new and changing responsibilities in a number of fields, ranging from social security to resources development, created a need for civil servants in a great variety of technical and professional classes that were unheard of in the prewar service. For all of these classes, rates had to be set and related to those being paid in private industry.

Postwar Period Poses Problems

The postwar problem of conducting research to support the rate-setting process was greatly intensified by the dynamic upward trend of wages and salaries and by the emergence of fringe benefits as an important part of the total remuneration of industrial employees. In a 10-year period from 1946 (when the wartime cost-of-living bonuses were incorporated in basic rates of pay) to 1956, the Commission had to cope with no less than seven general salary revisions. Meanwhile, the task of making allowances for fringe benefits in comparing rates of pay became increasingly difficult; during the same period, staff association pressures underlined the importance of improved pay research as a factor in maintaining good employer-employee relations.

In addition, association representations to the government began to stress the need for formal machinery that would give staff representatives a greater voice in the determination of salaries. Generally in agreement with the expressed government policy on salaries, the associations showed more and more interest in the methods and techniques used to translate the policy into rates of pay. There was also a growing demand for access to the facts and figures on which the salary recommendations of the Civil Service Commission were based.

The U.K.P.R.U.

This tendency was strengthened by developments in the United Kingdom, where an independent Pay Research Unit was established as a result of recommendations made in 1955 by the Royal Commission on the civil service. Two points made by the Royal Commission were of particular interest in Canada. Fact finding, the Commission said, should be divorced from rate determination and carried on in an atmosphere of objectivity and independence; and staff associations should be given a means of participating in the work of fact finding and full access to the results.

The report of the Royal Commission was carefully studied by the government and Civil Service Commission in Ottawa, and references to it began to appear in association editorials and briefs. Its influence was apparent in a brief submitted to the government by three of the major associations in March, 1957—a brief calling for the establishment of a separate and independent pay research unit whose findings would be available to staff representatives.

Formation of the Bureau

The staff proposal fell on fertile ground. Official opinion was favourable, as was the government. The newly-appointed members of the Civil Service Commission decided that their "first attention should be given to improving the process and strengthening the administrative machinery by which wage and salary levels in the federal service are determined."

Soon after his appointment in May, 1957, the Chairman of the Commission, A. D. P. Heeney, set up a three-man committee in the Commission to study the feasibility of creating a separate unit to conduct research into rates of pay, conditions of employment, and related personnel practices.

The report of the committee was approved by the Commission and on September 2, 1957, the formation of the Pay Research Bureau, as an independent unit within the Civil Service Commission, was announced. The official announcement contained the following paragraphs:

> In planning for the Pay Research Bureau over the past few months the Commission has had the benefit of the advice and assistance of departmental officials—in particular those of the Dominion Bureau of Statistics and the Department of Labour—and also officers of the various staff organizations. Treasury Board has now made the necessary financial provision for the additional Commission staff to man the Bureau.
>
> The Commission will establish an advisory committee to advise and assist in the work of the Bureau. The members of this committee will include representatives of Government Departments and staff organization.

The objectives of the Bureau, as set forth in its preliminary terms of reference, were:

1. To provide the Civil Service Commission, interested Government Departments and Agencies, Staff Associations and others concerned, with objective information on compensation and working conditions in Government, business and industry; and
2. To assemble and analyze factual evidence of trends and tendencies in working conditions in business and industry in order that the need for change in terms of Government employment may be anticipated and assessed.

Further definition was provided by a statement to the effect that, in seeking to attain its objectives, the Bureau will:

1. In conjunction with others (such as Treasury Board, the Department of Labour, and the Dominion Bureau of Statistics), assemble information which will permit accurate comparison to be made between Government and outside employment. In so doing, the Bureau will identify similarities and differences in the duties and responsibilities.
2. Obtain information on pay and conditions of service attached to duties judged to be comparable. "Conditions of service" will cover hours and leave, promotion, superannuation, housing facilities, bonuses and other additions to basic pay and conditions of work.

As the chairman of the Commission pointed out in his address to the International Conference of the Public Personnel Association in Montreal last October, the Bureau had been asked to undertake "the vastly complicated task of comparing the hundreds of categories of government employment with outside occupations and to provide a sound factual basis for the Commission's operations in this critical field."

Organization

The initial staff of the Bureau was built up quickly. Four officers, including the Director and Assistant Director, were transferred to the Bureau from other parts of the Commission. To provide technical assistance during the first year of operation, arrangements were made to borrow a senior economist from the Department of Labour and a senior statistician from the Dominion Bureau of Statistics. Competitions were then used to recruit a number of additional Pay Research Officers and a nucleus complement of clerks and stenographers.

The Pay Research Bureau is an integral part of the Civil Service Commission. At the present time the staff of the Bureau comprises a total of 27 employees, 12 officers, and 15 clerks and stenographers. Its organizational structure is illustrated in Annex I.

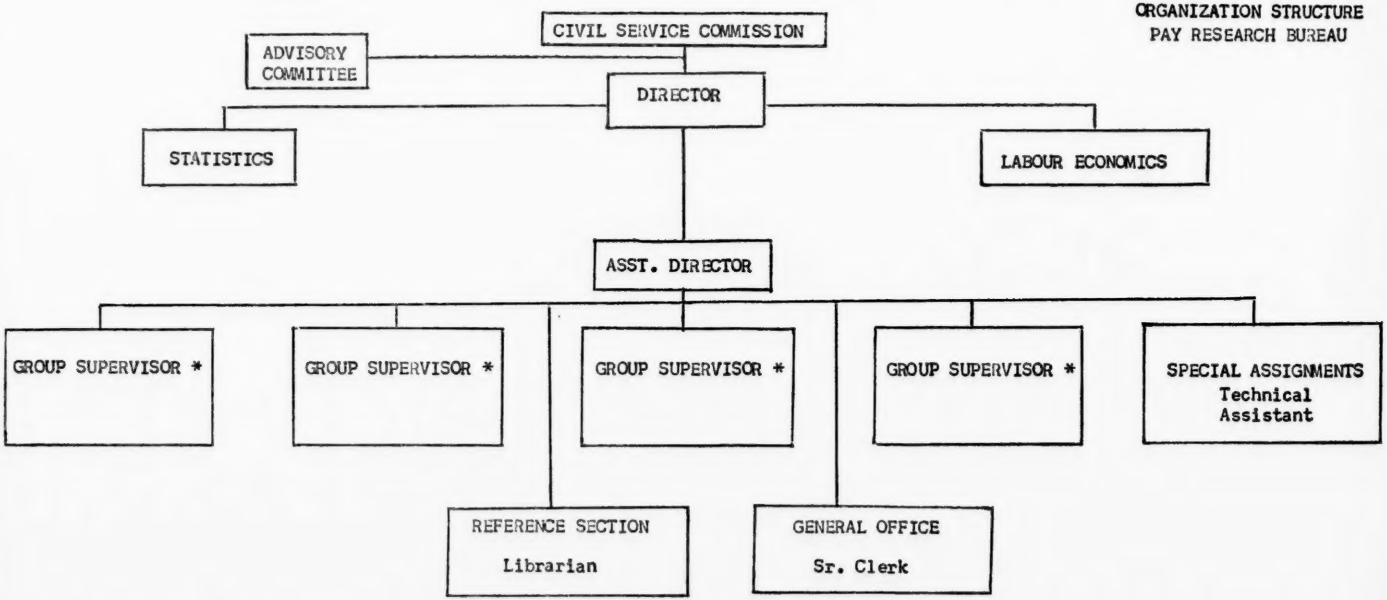
Advisory Committee. The announced decision of the Civil Service Commission to establish an Advisory Committee on Pay Research was implemented as quickly as arrangements could be made for the appointment of its members. These were completed in March, 1958.

In order to ensure satisfactory discussion, the size of the Committee was limited to 7 members: 3 representing the "official side," 3 representing the staff associations, and a chairman drawn from the Civil Service Commission.

Official side members, who were nominated by the Clerk of the Privy Council (who also serves as Secretary to the Cabinet), include the Secretary to the Treasury

ANNEX I

ORGANIZATION STRUCTURE
PAY RESEARCH BUREAU



* Each Group has a continuing functional responsibility for rate analyses relating to one or more main classes of employees (e.g., public health classes; clerical classes), and for studies relating to a general area of fringe benefits, conditions of employment or related personnel practices (e.g., methods of job comparison; pension, hospital-medical and insurance plans).

Board, the Assistant Deputy Minister for Customs and Excise in the Department of National Revenue, and the Director of Scientific Services in the Department of Mines and Technical Surveys.

Staff side members, who were nominated by the associations they represent, include the President of the Civil Service Federation of Canada, the General Secretary of the Civil Service Association of Canada, and the Immediate Past President of the Professional Institute of the Public Service of Canada.

The Director of the Bureau, or his alternate, attends all meetings to provide a liaison between the Committee and the staff of the Bureau.

The Committee reports to the Commission and, as its name implies, it is purely advisory, not executive. Its purpose is to advise on matters of pay research, more particularly on appropriate priorities of studies; the selection of areas of study and classes of employment on which research will be undertaken; and the distribution to interested parties of reports prepared in the Bureau, many of which are confidential becauses of the nature of the information they contain.

The significance of the provision made for the participation of the staff associations in the development of the program of the Bureau, and of the commitment made to provide them with information assembled by the Bureau, is worth emphasizing. There is good reason to believe that the new arrangements will facilitate discussions between staff and official sides, insofar as salaries are concerned. In an article published in *Canadian Business,* D. M. Watters, Secretary to the Treasury Board, was quoted as follows:

> We will now be able to compare the whole picture of salaries and working conditions, and avoid having both sides pound the table over misunderstandings resulting from selection of data.

The same point was made by the Prime Minister when, in the speech already mentioned, he referred to the formation of the Bureau and the Advisory Committee on Pay Research as "a great step forward," one which would enable staff representatives and those of the government "to discuss questions of salary in the light of the same information collected and compiled by an expert impartial body." Similar views have been publicly expressed by representatives of the Associations.

The Research Program

It is too early to say, of course, whether results will live up to expectations. Anyone who has had experience in the field knows something about the difficulties inherent in the collection and analysis of data relating to rates of pay and conditions of employment. These difficulties are aggravated when the data collected must be designed to meet the needs of a large-scale and farflung organization like the Canadian Civil Service, an organization which, in a country noted for substantial regional pay differentials, endeavors to establish the same rates of pay for employees performing similar duties, no matter where they are located. Well aware of these difficulties, the Bureau is deeply conscious of the fact that, in the long run, the quality of its work will determine the degree to which its output wins acceptance among representatives of the staff associations and the government. It is obvious that it will not be easy to develop a program that establishes a high standard of objectivity and technical competence and meets all the basic needs. It is just as obvious that this must be the clearly established aim.

The Pay Research Bureau has been in existence for a little more than 10 months. During this period it has had to cope with problems experienced by almost any new unit: time-consuming problems associated with the recruitment and training of staff, the acquisition of furniture, office accommodation and supplies, and the development of operating procedures. In spite of these problems, the importance of which has begun to diminish, good progress has been made toward the development of a basic program of research, and a considerable amount of work has been undertaken to meet specific requests for information, most of which have been related to the pay or conditions of employment of specific classes of employees. The number of such requests has exceeded expectations and will un-

doubtedly increase as departments and staff groups become more familiar with the services which the Bureau was established to provide.

In any event, during these first 10 months of operation, the Bureau has gained enough experience to make possible an identification of its main areas of activity. These areas will be referred to below.

Relationship with Government Agencies

To begin with, however, reference should be made to two relationships that have an important bearing on most of the work undertaken by the Pay Research Bureau: (1) the relationship with other government departments or agencies that collect data related to rates of pay and conditions of employment; and (2) the relationship with Canadian employers, on whose cooperation the Bureau must depend in its efforts to acquire the information it needs.

It was decided at the very beginning that, in order to avoid duplication of work within the government, every possible use should be made of information already available in Ottawa. This meant that the work of the Bureau should be developed in close cooperation with the Economics and Research Branch of the Department of Labour, which has for many years carried on a substantial program of surveys dealing with occupational rates of pay, working conditions, and collective agreement provisions, and with the Dominion Bureau of Statistics, which conducts a regular survey of employment and employee earnings in industry, a regular survey of federal government employment and payrolls, and a number of specialized surveys in which the Pay Research Bureau has a particular interest.

With both of these agencies, a good working relationship has been established. Consideration is now being given to the establishment of a permanent technical committee to ensure that programs and problems in which the three agencies have a mutual interest are regularly discussed.

Relationship with Private Industry

If the relationship with other government agencies is important, the relationship with employers is doubly so. To discharge its responsibilities, the Bureau must make careful comparison of jobs, as they are performed inside and outside the civil service. In work of this kind, there is no substitute for on-the-spot investigation, which means that the Bureau must rely heavily on personal field visits to outside firms and institutions. These visits are time-consuming for both the officers of the Bureau and the company officials with whom they deal.

A substantial amount of field work has already been carried out and, with very few exceptions, the experience with employers asked to provide information has been excellent. There is no disguising the fact, however, that the number of wage and salary surveys in the post-war period—surveys conducted by employer associations, consulting organizations, professional societies, and individual companies, as well as by government agencies—has placed a very heavy burden on the participating firms. The Bureau is well aware of this problem, which has been described by an American author as the problem of "one data collector following another," and is anxious to do everything possible to minimize it.

In the first place, field surveys can be planned in such a way as to keep within reasonable limits the number and duration of visits to any one company. This is obvious, so obvious in fact that it should be accepted as an obligation by any surveying organization.

Secondly, the surveying organization, as an employer, can offer to provide information on its own rates of pay and conditions of employment. This, too, is obvious.

Thirdly, the results of surveys conducted can be made available to the participating firms quickly and in a useful form.

All of these steps have been taken by the Pay Research Bureau and, by and large, they have elicited a favourable response. Another step, one which would offer substantial savings in time and effort, would be to work out arrangements for cooperative multiemployer surveys. To do so would be difficult; nevertheless, the Bureau is now devoting considerable thought to the possibility.

Main Areas of Research

In the space that remains, there is room only for a brief description of the main

areas of research activity in the Pay Research Bureau.

The first area encompasses what might be termed *general studies of outside rates and conditions of employment*. These are of two types:

Studies based on survey data collected by the Department of Labour and the Dominion Bureau of Statistics and, to a more limited extent, on information available from surveys conducted by outside firms and institutions.

Studies based on large-scale field investigations carried out by officers of the Pay Research Bureau.

Studies of the former type, which frequently involve special tabulations of unpublished data, are used to follow the general trend of employee earnings, occupational rates of pay, and conditions of employment. Studies of the latter type, which are still in the developmental stage, will be based on a sample of firms considered suitable for direct comparison with the Civil Service. They will be used to obtain more detailed information on conditions of employment as they relate to pay rates, and to determine, on the basis of a careful comparison of files, the rates being paid in industry to select classes of employees that are of central importance in the classification structure of the civil service.

To acquire experience with studies of this kind, and to examine the limitations of data already available from mailed surveys, a fairly extensive program of field visits, covering over 50 large-scale employers located in every part of Canada, was developed and carried out last winter by the Pay Research Bureau in cooperation with the Economics and Research Branch of the Department of Labour.

The questionnaire used for our last field survey is too extensive to be reproduced as part of this article. However, it might be of interest to indicate that it covers the following items:

General information pertaining to enterprise

1. officials interviewed
2. principal activity of enterprise
3. establishments operated & location
4. personnel organization
   (a) functions performed by the central personnel office;
   (b) to what extent are personnel and pay records centralized.

General information pertaining to establishment

1. officials interviewed
2. principal activities
3. number of employees
4. collective agreement

Classification and Pay

1. type of plan
2. major group covered
3. wage and salary schedule and classification analysis
4. current pay rates
5. prospective changes in pay
6. production or incentive pay plan

General conditions of employment

1. standard work week
2. annual vacation with pay
3. statutory holidays
4. overtime—office employees
5. overtime—non-office employees
6. pay for work on Saturday or Sunday or assigned rest days and statutory holidays
7. shift payment
8. reporting pay
9. minimum call pay
10. stand-by pay
11. bonus plan
12. formal profit-sharing plan
13. pension plan
14. group life insurance
15. group hospital-medical plan
16. sick leave or equivalent benefit
17. supplementary compensation for occupational injury
18. other leave
19. guaranteed employment or wages
20. lay-offs benefits
21. severance pay
22. other benefits such as discounts, stock purchase, meals, loans, housing, uniform

Individual class studies are assuming considerable importance. General surveys, covering a substantial number of basic classes will meet many needs, including those associated with the timing and extent of general salary revisions. It will be necessary, however, for the Bureau to conduct field surveys to obtain information needed in connection with problems that arise from time to time in connection with the setting of rates for particular classes of civil service employees. The Bureau has already experienced a surprising demand for studies of this kind, and

there is every reason to believe that the demand will increase once the formal channels of comunication for requests to the Bureau have been fully established.

Developmental work comprises a third main area of activity. In order to provide information needed in the planning of field investigations, the Bureau has taken steps to obtain, on a systematic basis, a considerable amount of information not previously available on the composition and regional distribution of civil servants employed in different classifications.

Work designed to evaluate the strengths and shortcomings of data already available from various sources, and of different techniques of analysis, has also been considered essential. A form designed to provide improved statistics on turnover in the service has been prepared and is now being tested in one department of government.

Finally, mention should be made of *ad hoc studies*—those which cannot be neatly placed in any of the categories referred to above. One example is a project that will eventually result in the preparation of a history of pay and conditions of employment in the civil service. This is a long-term project designed to provide a basic reference paper on the principles of civil service remuneration that have evolved since the passage of the first Civil Service Act. Another study currently underway, for which a mailed survey is being used, is designed to provide the Civil Service Commission with information on certain practices followed by industrial employers in wage and salary administration.

In conclusion, it might be said that the new Bureau has its hands full. It has been given an important and challenging task. Given the type of support it has so far received from both the government and the staff associations, it has every reason to hope that its work will have a beneficial effect on the Public Service of Canada.

I.Q. More Important Than Sex . . .

National surveys indicate that wage discrimination against women still exists but slowly is being reduced, and adding its bit to this trend is a resolution to be introduced at the General Assembly in May. This proposal (General Welfare resolution 10), submitted by the State Board of Directors, asks that MSEA sponsor an amendment to the Michigan Constitution and amendments to other state laws as appropriate to guarantee equal pay for equal work regardless of sex. The resolution also directs the Central Office to prepare a bill to this effect for introduction during the 1959 legislative session.

A study of the problem made by Mrs. Opal Tiernan shows that, in Michigan, 12,000 of the state's almost 29,000 classified employees are females and, that of these, 83.4 per cent are in the three lowest classifications.

There are 109 women in classes III-A through VIII, as compared to 1,432 men in the same classification—less than 1 per cent.

On the federal level, congressional hearings are expected this year on some of the many federal equal-pay bills introduced by women lawmakers. In Wisconsin and Ohio, equal-pay bills have been introduced in the legislatures, and, in New York and Pennsylvania, state organizations have been working to revise existing legislation to enforce the extension of equal pay coverage to all employees.

California last year passed a strengthening amendment to similar legislation, and Nebraska has adopted a resolution favoring it. Equal-pay measures also have been introduced in Florida, Indiana, Iowa, Minnesota, and Utah.—From *The MSEA News*, Lansing, Michigan, April, 1958.

Milwaukee's Police Aide Program a Success

Richard Block

Apprenticeship plan offers high school gaduates career opportunities in the police service.

BECAUSE of entrance age requirements in the police service, many well-qualified young men who have indicated an interest in entering law-enforcement work as a career, have been forced to take up other employment. Later, when attaining the age necessary for police entrance examinations, these young men have become entrenched in, and satisfied with, the positions they occupy, and thus have been lost to the police profession. The problem has long been recognized by many police authorities.

In 1952, a group of Milwaukee citizens was called together by myself, then Chairman of the Fire and Police Commission, to discuss the problem and to consider a proposal to establish an apprenticeship program within the police department. The committee consisted of John W. Polcyn, then Chief of the Milwaukee Police Department; Dr. William Rasche, Director of the Milwaukee Vocational and Adult Schools; Judge Robert Hansen, then Secretary and Chief Examiner of the Commission; and Robert Garnier, Classification Examiner of the Commission. As the result of this and other meetings, the Police Aide Program was set up as operative in the Milwaukee Police Department, the first of its kind in the United States. With 6 years of valuable experience now behind it, the Milwaukee Police Department has been able to help other police organizations throughout the country in adapting its successful apprenticeship plan.

Originally, the number of candidates was limited to 2 boys from each of the 20 high schools in the City of Milwaukee; the principals recommending the boys who were to be considered. These candidates were given an aptitude test and a thorough medical examination, and the 12 highest qualifiers in these examinations were appointed to positions in 1952.

Office Skills Are Important

Because of the vast amount of clerical work necessary in a police operation, the police aides are assigned to this function. During the first year of their service they attend school half days at the Milwaukee Vocational School, where they take courses in Typewriting, Shorthand, Business English, Office Practice, etc. Afternoons they report to their respectively assigned police offices where they perform varied tasks, dependent upon the office involved.

The program provides for a rotation of the police aides, each 6-month period, so that they obtain a broad knowledge of the functions of the various police divisions in which they work. Upon completion of their 1 year of service, and upon obtaining a passing grade in their vocational school courses, they are assigned to full-time duty, again on a rotating basis, office to office and shift to shift.

"Today," observes Chief Howard Johnson, "a young man entering upon a police service career has the opportunity of learning about the Detective Bureau, Traffic, Youth Aid, Identification and Records.

"He understands communications because he has worked there; he understands criminal procedures because he has worked in Detective Clerical; he understands criminal process and court procedures because he has worked for the City Attorney preparing warrants and briefs.

"It is the apprentice program in this country that has elevated the American workman to his position as the best skilled worker in the world. Why not a similar program for young men who might want to become policemen?"

Method of Recruitment Changed

Each succeeding year a new group of aides has been recruited and our present au-

thorized strength calls for 48 positions in the Department. To further expand the program, a change in the method of recruitment was inaugurated in 1956—the field was thrown open to all Milwaukee high school graduates of the current year on a competitive basis. Also, at this time, the entrance exam was expanded to embrace all the requirements of intelligence tests, medical examinations, physical agility tests, and an oral examination comparable to the entrance examination for all police officers.

This action resulted in a broader selection of candidates, and created increased interest among the young men in our high schools.

Benefits

The 1958 Police Aide salary begins at \$3,251.16 annually, with increments each 6-month period of the 4-year apprenticeship to a maximum at the fourth year of \$4,191.36.

While at work in the offices, the aides wear a regulation Milwaukee Police Department uniform shirt and a special badge for police aides with a number designation. In addition, they wear a black four-in-hand tie and blue serge trousers.

They are members of the City employees pension unit and, after completion of one year of service, are entitled to two weeks' vacation. They also participate in the Blue Cross Insurance Plan and other departmental fringe benefits. They are required to live up to the rules and regulations laid down for employees of the Milwaukee Police Department and are expected to set the proper example in all of their on-duty and off-duty associations.

Program's Progress

The original group of police aides completed their 4-year apprenticeship on June 24, 1956, at which time 8 of the original group were appointed as regular police patrolmen in the Department. In 1957, a second group completed the program and have graduated from the recruit school with other candidates for the police service.

The administrators of the Milwaukee Police Department report that the young policemen who completed the police aide apprenticeship have adjusted remarkably well and are competent officers. It is anticipated that the knowledge they acquired in their work in the rotation plan through the various police offices and bureaus has given them a background of information, that will be of tremendous value to them in their police careers, and that this background will give them many advantages in promotional examinations as they progress in the Department. Their knowledge of shorthand and typing is of tremendous value to them as police officers, the quality of their reports and their increased knowledge of the reports' functions will, in time, greatly increase the efficiency of police operations.

During the apprenticeship period the police aides perform a valuable and necessary function in the Department. Many clerical positions in the Clerk Stenographer and Clerk Typist classifications have been eliminated, and the work carried by police aides. Their work in the offices also enables many policemen to return to the field duties for which they were intended.

Some of the Problems

Some of the problems we have encountered in the Police Aide Program might be of interest. Probably the largest of these is the matter of military service, in that a large percentage of the young men have been called to serve their 2-year military obligation during the apprenticeship period, and this interruption has handicapped both the Department and the individual to some extent.

Another problem that, at the present time, has been largely overcome, was the acceptance of the police aides both by the regular police personnel and our civilian clerical force. As mentioned, the boys have largely overcome this problem by carrying out their assignments satisfactorily and being of great value to the operation of the office to which they are assigned.

Followthrough

The police training school staff is generally charged with the broad responsibility of overseeing the police aide program. During the first year of service, they are in

close liaison with the Vocational School instructors and assist in setting up situation examinations, etc., to provide a realistic program. After the first year in the program, all of the aides are called to the Training School semiannually and are given typewriting and shorthand tests to insure that they are maintaining a satisfactory performance level. In addition, the rating reports of their immediate supervisory officers are received in the Training School and the police aides' progress is carefully noted in this area also.

In a few instances it has been necessary to terminate a police aide for cause. It is necessary from time to time that all persons be reminded that the program must be looked on as a training and development program, and in order to be successful, must have the full cooperation of all supervisory officers of the Department in that regard.

The training division carefully watches the transfers and adjustments of the police aides, as the interest of the candidate sometimes varies with his assignment. In some offices the opportunities and diversified activities are more interesting than others.

It is our belief, in the Milwaukee Police Department, that the Police Aide Program is a valuable asset to our Department and that similar programs should be valuable to other law-enforcement agencies. We feel that the program, as operative in Milwaukee, will eventually improve the quality of personnel and will, to an extent, solve a portion of our recruitment problem. As a result of this program, the citizens of our community will have the benefit of better informed and more efficient police officers.

One At Every Meeting . . .

The Explode-at-the-Door Man. He sits quietly through the meeting as if everything were to his liking. Ask him to voice his views to the meeting and his knees would fold. But later at the door he boils over. You hear him as he rounds up a few discontented members "And another thing I didn't like. . . ."

The Confused Listener. He tries to be helpful but can't follow the proceedings. He rises to say there's a motion before the house; and has to be told it was rejected half-an-hour ago. He has a habit of sitting in the last row and complaining he can't hear. Throughout he carries an outraged attitude of "Why don't people tell me these things."

The Professional Seconder. He never thinks up an idea and is so overwhelmed when someone else does that he comes in with a loud "seconded." Any nonsensical scheme anyone can think up gets his nod. He then settles back to enjoy the confusion or dozes until time for him to chime in with another second.

The Hair-Splitter. Not an intentional obstructionist, he's determined to see fair play which he defines as "knowing exactly what we're letting ourselves in for." Every word has to be tested—he's even likely to challenge the Chairman's opening "Good evening." By 10:00 p.m., you are just about agreed on an agenda for the evening when he begs the chairman's indulgence. He has a previous engagement and "had no idea the meeting would drag on so long!"

The Willing Voter. He takes little part in business but votes in loud voice. He is always eager to swell the votes of the prevailing side. A dangerous yes-man.

The Stay-at-Home. Meetings bore him. He has his own way of wasting time. Besides he doesn't want to feel responsible for anything that happens. The blood is not on his hands if he didn't go to the meeting.—From *The Window*, official organ of the staff of the Ministry of Pensions and National Insurance in Britain, via the official publication of the Civil Service Association of Alberta.

Developing Middle Management

Harry W. Reynolds, Jr.

Ten colleges and 55 federal agencies join in plan for finding and training executive talent for Department of Defense.

PROBABLY NO FACET of public personnel administration in the United States has evoked as intensive and widespread an interest among students and practitioners of public management in the last decade as has the role of executive development in strengthening the administrative career service.[1] In particular, there has been a growing effort to achieve a strengthening of the career service by this means throughout the field echelons of the national government, where the heaviest administrative burdens, substantially involving middle-management personnel, occur.

A recently significant undertaking which broached this subject of executive development among select middle-management civilian personnel in various field activities of the Department of Defense took place under academic auspices in Los Angeles. An account of its background, content, and method of operation, with a word on the program's evaluation—items of significance to public personnel practitioners and students—follows.

Need for a Program

The motivation to undertake a management development program for federal field activities in the Los Angeles area sprang from two sources: (1) the increasingly perceived dearth of resident administrative skills, and (2) the perturbing realization that an unavoidable growth in governmental function there would only accentuate and worsen existing deficiencies.

In 1949, when the First Hoover Commission disclosed specific details about the causes and extent of the inadequate supply of qualified federal administrators, a measure of the seriousness of this problem generally throughout the government was made available in terms so graphic that further and equally searching analyses of the same issue were engendered within many functional and areal jurisdictions.

Of the approximately 3300 general management positions at grades of GS 15 to 18, and the 50,000 intermediate management positions at grades of GS 9 to 14, which comprised the federal career service at mid-century, about 400 and 1400, respectively, lay within a seven-county area of Southern California, a part of the Twelfth Civil Service Region. Caught in the momentum generated by the Hoover Commission's inquiry, and seeking a more informed understanding of its resident administrative needs, the Region undertook to ascertain, by informal samples, the extent of particular agency shortages in 1951 and 1952 in and near Los Angeles.

Scarcity and Sluggishness

The results of this investigation respecting local conditions coincided closely with the general Hoover Commission findings in regard to such phases of the subject as the respective turnover rates of federal employees and employees principally in top-management and middle-management positions; the disproportion of new appointments which are replacements for resignees; the scarcity of effective management training programs; the sluggishness attending promotional opportunities; the great amount of time elapsing in the establishment of registers for various middle-management positions; and the measure of disadvantage attending federal salaries when compared with

[1] In preparing this account of the regional program in management development for Defense Department installations the writer wishes to acknowledge the assistance and counsel afforded by his colleague, Dean Henry Reining, Jr.

private, state, and local compensation schedules.[2]

The following portions of the concurrent evidence were regarded as most pivotal and compelling:

1. Turnover rate among top-management and middle-management employees in the Los Angeles area and throughout the government generally has been about 10 per cent each year since 1949. Approximately 9 of each 10 new appointments to these positions are replacements for resignees.
2. Planned programs for procurement and promotion of career employees were largely absent or ineffective. The Hoover Commission found in a poll of top career officials that 37 per cent had taken no specific steps to train their replacements. For approximately 50 agencies within the Los Angeles area the incidence of neglect was at least twice as great. Systematic in-service training of promising junior administrators touched only about 300 persons throughout the government annually, whereas many thousand positions stood in need. In the Los Angeles area such training was primitive and infrequent in the few instances where it did exist. Selection processes were everywhere deemed to be slow and impersonal; appointing agencies with specific openings played no real part in placement.
3. Promotional opportunities in the career service were complicated by outmoded legal and salary circumscriptions. Of 3,107 top-management positions paying $9,976 or more a year at mid-century, 1,738 were outside the merit system, including about 100 in Southern California. Although real wages of non-federal employees rose 58 per cent between 1939 and 1948, those of federal employees declined. Transfer opportunities for career administrators within or between agencies were virtually non-existent in Los Angeles or nationally; only 12 per cent of 1400 positions scrutinized by the Hoover Commission were occupied by transferees.

In view of the uncertain supply of qualified administrative talent available to federal activities within the Los Angeles area, attention was increasingly drawn to the feasibility of management development as a means for improving the competence of incumbents in supervisory and junior executive positions, and for increasing the quantity of experienced and skilled administrators that would be usable in positions in top management. In particular, an executive development program augured well as a means of fostering the development of administrative ability, specifically, i.e., cultivating the capacities to understand and direct the work of others, to accept responsibility, to learn the attitudes and habits of teamwork and coordination, and to develop discernment in making difficult decisions.

Joint College-Federal Service Council

The steps which were taken to bring to life a management development program designed to benefit the federal field establishments in and near Los Angeles reflect primarily the persistent prompting of the Joint College-Federal Service Council of Southern California. This organization, consisting altogether of one representative from each of 10 collegiate institutions and 55 federal agencies functioning within that seven-county territory, became the principal architect and catalyst of subsequent measures that were devised to expedite executive training objectives.

A tentative plan for achieving these objectives was drafted by a special committee of the Council in early 1954. The consideration of measures whereby it could be strengthened and financed took slightly more than 3 additional years.

Prior involvement of area units in management training enterprises was uncommon. Support for this kind of undertaking was especially vigorous from academic and civil service commission participants in the Council. Among federal establishments lo-

[2] Commission on Organization of the Executive Branch of the Government, *Task Force Report on Federal Personnel* (Washington: United States Government Printing Office, 1949), pp. 29-36; and the same Commission's *Report on Federal Personnel* (1949), pp. 37-51.

cated in or near Los Angeles, however, fully half disclaimed any interest in the training program from the outset; only 15 per cent manifested real interest in the contemplated enterprise.

Aims of the Council

As conceived by the drafting committee and endorsed by the Council, the management development program for federal field personnel within the Los Angeles area subscribed to several important assumptions. First, the training undertaking was regarded as introducing a new dimension in the career development of regional personnel, namely, the fostering of special instruction and outside assignments which would supplement on-the-job training activities by line agencies.

Second, middle-management employees—program specialists as well as junior management practitioners—were to be given preference for administrative training; designated aptitudes for enrollees, authentically verified by the sponsoring or employing establishments, would suffice for ascertaining eligibility; breadth and urgency attaching to federal managerial responsibilities in the junior hierarchical levels required the predisposed basis of candidate selection.

Third, recruitment efforts by the program's sponsors were to be directed toward acquiring a contrastive assemblage of trainees who, for leavening purposes, represented many different governmental employment experiences.

Fourth, emphasis was to be placed upon training for managerial responsibilities in the broad sense; that is, upon the development of managerial capabilities which would be able to grasp the broad interrelatedness of public administrative problems rather than simply the limited techniques of functional implementation.

Fifth, the program for management development should endeavor to combine academic review and analysis of the theory and literature of governmental administration with pragmatic, realistic managerial problem-solving.

Sixth, a limit of 25 enrollees was felt to be preferable in the light of the groundbreaking nature of the program and its seminar-like instructional pattern.

Seventh, an academic institution of higher learning was to be given charge of the project. Within the Council there was widespread agreement to confer directional responsibility in this respect upon the School of Public Administration of the University of Southern California.

The Elusive Dollar

To be able to utilize the resources of the university fully in the effectuation of the intended program, however—i.e., to obtain the service of competent faculty members and guest lecturers, to acquire necessary instructional materials, and to defray the expense of pertinent field trips—adequate funds were indispensable. In spite of this need, most federal agencies within the Los Angeles area wanting to enter the program lacked specific statutory authority to pledge any sum of money to offset per capita fees. Indeed, that statutory authority has existed only limitedly and for particular units within the Department of Defense, by and large. More than 2 years were consumed in an unsuccessful quest for broader spending authority for non-defense agencies interested in participating.

The actual launching of the management development program, following the original prospectus (and serving those federal agencies by then possessing authority and money to participate), took place in January, 1957. Two reasons accounted for this course of action: (1) the very apparent unavailability, at this late date, of desired participatory power for non-defense agencies; and (2) the realization, gradually taking hold within the Council, that initiating a management development program with less than the desired variety of participants would, even so, set a marked precedent and satisfy a pressing need.

The Defense Department agencies ultimately empowered to participate in the management development program, together with the number of matriculants each had indicated it could contribute, were the Los Angeles Ordnance District (2), Edwards Air Force Base (6), Point Mugu Naval Air Missile Test Center (3), Maywood Air

Force Depot (7), and Norton Air Force Depot (7). The attendants ranged in rank from GS 7 to GS 11. Four possessed baccalaureate degrees; all were high school graduates.

To assist employing agencies in their task of selecting matriculants, the regional Civil Service office devised a battery of tests which sought to measure each prospective enrollee's capacity for abstract reasoning, administrative judgment, learning, and knowledge of current events. In addition, supervisory evaluations or appraisals by executive development panels in each agency were also mandatory for each probable matriculant.

The budget adopted by the Joint College-Federal Service Council and put into effect for the training enterprise is set forth in Table I.

TABLE I

ALLOCATION OF EXPENSES FOR FEDERAL MANAGEMENT TRAINING PROGRAM IN LOS ANGELES

Tuition (for 25 enrollees)	$1100
Faculty Services and Special Lecturers	1400
Textbooks	250
Materials and Supplies	300
Travel and Overhead	400
Total	$3450

Content of the Program

The structure of the training program rested upon a basic graduate course in public administration, for which enrollees received two units of academic credit. Those attendants who did not possess baccalaureate degrees were admitted to the same course of instruction, but did not qualify for full standing in the university's graduate division.

For a 12-week period, beginning in late March, the management trainees met for 1 full day weekly with academic and substantive personnel who commanded various portions of the training activity. A full-time faculty member of the School of Public Administration was placed in complete supervision of the undertaking.

Morning sessions under this instructor's tutelage, lasting 3 hours each, were devoted to lectures and discussions of ideas and practices within the various topics that comprise public management. Afternoon sessions of equal length were consumed in workshops, field trips, and visits with pertinent functional specialists in appropriate governmental jurisdictions. These field trips endeavored to facilitate comparative appraisals of observed situations through face-to-face discussions between the visiting observers and their hosts.

A basic textbook in governmental administration and a compilation of management problems, or cases, constituted the reading material.

Formal Course Work. The graduate course in governmental administration, around which the entire training program revolved, laid stress upon the generalist—rather than the specialist—approach to management preparation and development. A grasp of the dynamic fundamentals of management was believed to lie at the heart of substantial and continuous individual growth in the administrative art.

Included within the academic emphasis were the following particular topics:

The ecology and politics of American public management, due to social, economic, and political change

The aspects and ramifications of administrative organization, including a critique of the theory of structure, together with its applicable forms and purposes

The nature of the planning function in public management as it relates to the execution of administrative decisions

The scope of auxiliary staff activities in administration, including the performance budget in its administrative and legislative aspects; preauditing and postauditing criteria; recent developments in governmental accounting; and the vital problem areas associated with public personnel administration

The kind of techniques deemed most suitable for the realization of various administrative objectives

The dimensions of administrative discretion

The psychology of administrative decision-making

The aurae and media of administrative coordination
The nature of accountability of appointed public administrators to legislative and judicial bodies, elected executives, and political interest groups.

Field Trips and Visitations. Approximately 50 per cent of the total class time devoted to the management training program at the University of Southern California was used in visits and conferences with outstanding governmental practitioners or eminent substantive specialists.

In the area of *organization and management,* participating students met with the director of the Los Angeles office of the Internal Revenue Service, who reviewed with them at length the purpose and procedures pertaining to the reorganization of that federal function since 1953. The director pointed up the management controls which have a bearing upon his relationships with superiors and subordinates within a regional setting and discussed specific problems of coordination, selection of supervisors, and budgetary preparation and control within his jurisdiction.

Particularly noteworthy was the opportunity accorded by the Internal Revenue Service to the management trainees for role-playing and problem-solving in conjunction with organizational and administrative problems in its Los Angeles office. The trainees were first familiarized with exigent situations pertaining specifically to (1) disciplining of personnel (determining the deployment of a worker with long tenure but with a propensity for chronic tardiness); and (2) coordinating the interrogative field work of tax investigatory personnel and the followup inspections of that work by administrative auditors.

Within the context of actual personality and organizational relationships, trainees circumspectly endeavored to act out the pertinent individual roles inherent in each problem, proposing and defending particular courses of action before the entire class.

In the area of *administrative staff services,* participating students conferred with the budget director and controller of the Long Beach Naval Shipyard, who, with members of their staffs, explained the details of performance budgeting and naval industrial fund accounting. Exposition of these processes was facilitated by relating them to representative line operations. From management planning practitioners in the same installation the administrative trainees obtained a detailed analysis of work measurement and production control methods in use in various governmental industrial plants.

Specially augmented consideration was given to the personnel function in management, with the Los Angeles office of the Twelfth Civil Service Region making available pertinent specialists from its staff to discuss with participating students the critical problems associated with performance ratings, incentives and awards, probationary status, and position classification and wage administration.

In the area of *administrative decision-making,* management trainees conferred at length with a judge of the Superior Court of California, who previously had served as an assistant city solicitor for the City of Los Angeles. Through discussions with this jurist and members of his staff participating students acquired greater understanding of the legal foundations of administrative discretion, of the role of discretion in decision-making by public managers, and of the inherent characteristics of fact and value in decision-making.

In the area of *administrative communication and implementation,* management trainees reviewed with their Internal Revenue and naval shipyard contacts the nature of communication media thought most effective for the transmission of directives and ideas within various public hierarchies, functional and government-wide. Similarly, experiences that dealt with processes to insure optimum compliance with directives by public administrators at different hierarchical levels were critically examined.

Much Talent Uncovered

The middle management development program demonstrated the wide sources of administrative talent within governmental agencies which can promisingly be tapped

to ease mounting executive requirements. Functional and staff personnel from participating agencies manifested as perceptive a grasp of administrative problems, as varied and applicable backgrounds, and as eminent a comprehension of course materials upon final written examination as did wholly managerial personnel. The results of the examinations also indicated that a correlation existed between educational attainment and written performance of most participants, but not between written performance and grade level.

The academic orientation of the middle management training program produced singularly significant effects. Two participating trainees, upon completion of the training course, enrolled for additional graduate study in public management; three successfully qualified, through examinations, for greater administrative responsibilities at higher grade levels in their respective agencies; approximately two-thirds of the trainees received more creditable supervisory evaluations speedily after the program's termination. The university notified the supervisor of each participant by mail as to its appraisal of that participant's achievements in the training undertaking.

Participants' Impressions

Impressions which the participants in the training program received as to the profitableness of that undertaking for them were universally high. After the completion of the program, each trainee was questioned by the regional Civil Service office about the prestige value of the program to him or her in relation to individual career anticipations. All agreed that participation had augmented their employment records, but a majority took pains to list what they perceived to be more tangible benefits of participation—e.g., better understanding of the nature and content of various problems of management, more satisfactory comprehension of the unique purposes served by public management in American life.

The middle management development program in Los Angeles manifested certain shortcomings, notably in respect to its capricious financial support and its limited impact upon the followup training methods of participating agencies. Nevertheless, the request from cooperating establishments for a comparable program in the foreseeable future seems likely to be realized; this undoubtedly represents the training enterprise's most significant achievement.

You Can't Climb a Ladder Without Moving . . .

A professional association which must nourish itself largely on a diet of words is obliged to guard against malnutrition through consumption of the same calorie-free foods year after year. This guard can be maintained by stimulating, encouraging, and applauding *action* to fulfill the professional objectives.

My anniversary soul-searching will center on the public personnel administrator and his participation in management. I relish this particular point of attention as it places the personnel function where it should live, if it is to serve modern government, in the management stream, at the point of planning, decision-making, and evaluation.—John W. Macy, Jr., speaking at the Eastern Regional Conference, PPA, Albany, New York, May 8, 1958.

The Federal Wage Board Program

J. Kenneth Mulligan

A nationwide network gathers wage data to help gear pay of blue-collar federal employees to local prevailing rates.

In the almost annual public debate about pay raises for employees of the U. S. federal government, there goes almost unnoticed the fact that for a very large segment of federal workers, 748,454 or almost 33% of the total of 2,285,156, pay adjustment is accomplished inconspicuously and regularly under various prevailing rate "wage board" procedures. These employees are trades, crafts, and manual labor workers, exempted from the Classification Act of 1949, as amended, and paid in accordance with prevailing rates established through wage surveys. They are in shipyards, hospitals, building maintenance shops, and laboratories—in all kinds of industrial situations where "blue-collar" workers are found. They work alongside of, and frequently are supervised by, employees under different pay systems.

All signs point to a balanced competitive position between these federal employees and private industry; complaints from operating officials about recruitment problems and from private industry about "pirating" are rare. Employee organizations appear to be reasonably well satisfied with the results.

The wage bill for this group of federal workers exceeds $3 billion annually. Their pay has kept pace with changes in industry and increased in mean average by 42.5% from July 1951 to July 1957, from $3,245 to $4,625 per annum.

Should Coverage Be Extended?

Proposals to consider the extension of the prevailing rate principle into occupational categories whose pay is now fixed by statute, such as scientists, engineers, and office machine operators, have drawn attention to prevailing rate pay administration in the federal government. As an illustration of this interest, the Hoover Commission in its February 1955 report recommended that "the Civil Service Commission and the appropriate Committees of the Congress review the positions now under the Classification Act to determine whether additional positions might in the interests of economy and efficiency be paid under local wage board arrangements."

It is timely, therefore, to take a look at the prevailing rate system as it now operates in the federal government. This will be our purpose—to describe the federal wage board system (or systems); explore its coverage, scope, and legal authority; examine variations in operation; and report on improvements being considered.

Some "Board" Rates Not Set by Boards

Pay based upon rates prevailing in the community is the generic characteristic of all wage board employees. An actual "wage board" is not involved in the setting of all, or perhaps even a majority of, such rates. The term derived historically from the establishment by the Department of the Navy, after the enactment of the first prevailing rate law in 1861, of boards to collect wage data, hear employees, and set rates subject to review and revision by the Secretary of the Navy.

While the first boards represented management exclusively, from 1916 through the early 40's there was a labor-management Navy Wage Board of Review to review local reports and recommend rates to the Secretary. Since 1947, the Navy has called such groups, which serve similar purposes, "Committees" rather than "Boards." The continued use of the term has persisted, however, reinforced by the existence of boards in some other departments, such as Interior, Treasury, and Agriculture, and by

the existence of the Army-Air Force Wage Board.

The latter, deriving from the War Department Wage Coordination Board established in 1945, is composed of six management members from the Departments of the Army and Air Force. It is staffed jointly by these departments for the purpose of conducting wage surveys and setting pay rates for all of their wage board employees. Locality wage survey boards are a feature of its survey practices. Many other agencies, however, set "wage board" rates without boards or committees, such as Veterans Administration, General Services Administration, and the Department of Health, Education, and Welfare.

It is important to note that wage board employees have an identity apart from other federal employees only with respect to methods of pay fixing. Their other employment conditions, such as provisions relating to tenure and status, leave, retirement, insurance, reduction in force and dismissal, are the same as those available to Classification Act employees.

Scope and Variety

Federal employees paid under prevailing rate systems have an immense range when considered occupationally, geographically, industrially, and organizationally. The variety of pay problems dealt with are as broad as all of American industry.

Occupationally, in Army installations alone there are 46 different job families, such as Woodworking, each divided into many series, i.e., Carpentry. The variety of job families found in Army is illustrated by these: Metal Processing; Electronic Equipment Installation and Maintenance; Railroad Operation; Ammunition and Explosives; and Rubber Working.

Industrially, the scope is large. There are production and repair workers in shops manufacturing or overhauling ships, aircraft, ordnance, etc. There are building maintenance workers engaged in the upkeep of federal buildings scattered throughout the country. This group was exempted from the Classification Act only recently, in 1954, when the Crafts, Protective, and Custodial Schedule was eliminated, which added 70,000 employees to the wage board group. As an anomaly, some postal employees similarly engaged are paid statutory rates under the Postal Field Service Compensation Act of 1955. There are laundry and food service workers in military, veterans, and Indian hospitals. Laboratory mechanics, such as experimental machinists and glass-blowers, are included. A substantial number are engaged in the operation and maintenance of trucks, construction equipment, vessels, and railroads. Others are in warehousing operations and printing plants.

Geographically, wage board employees are found in over 400 distinct areas for which rates are separately established. While some of these areas have only a few employees, 274 areas have been defined and have a substantial number of workers. The concentration of workers varies greatly by area—39,214 in the San Francisco Bay Area, 1,591 in Hastings, Nebraska, 522 at Presque Isle, Maine, are examples.

The latest information available on the distribution of wage board employees among agencies shows, for July, 1957, 748,454 wage board employees in 52 separate departments or independent agencies. Eleven of these agencies accounted for 98.1 per cent of the total; the next 13 agencies, with a total of only 13,239 wage board employees, had 1.8 per cent of them; while the remaining 28 agencies had a total of only 699 wage board employees, less than one tenth of one per cent of the total. Another significant fact is that the Army, Navy, and Air Force, comprising the Department of Defense, had 84.7 per cent of all wage board employees.

The Legal Aspects

Legal authority defining the wage board category and setting pay policy for it, with respect to most of the agencies, is contained in Section 202(7) of the Classification Act of 1949, as amended. Several agencies have special statutory authority, however, such as the Department of the Navy, Tennessee Valley Authority, Government Printing Office, and the Atomic Energy Commission.[1]

[1] See Appendix B of *A Study of Prevailing-Rate Pay Systems for Trades, Crafts, and Labor Occupations in the Federal Service,* Committee on Post Office and Civil Service, United States Senate, G. P. O., 1954, for legal citations as of that date.

The wage board group is defined, in Section 202(7) of the Classification Act, as those "employees in recognized trades or crafts, or other skilled mechanical crafts, or in unskilled, semiskilled, or skilled manual-labor occupations, and other employees including foremen and supervisors in positions having trade, craft, or laboring experience and knowledge as the paramount requirement. . . ."[2] Pay policy, in the same paragraph, is simply stated: "The compensation of such employees shall be fixed and adjusted from time to time as nearly as is consistent with the public interest in accordance with prevailing rates."

The Legal Exceptions

Legal variations from this basic policy are few, and they are significant in only two or three instances. There has been no legal test of the applicability of Section 202(7) of the Classification Act to the Department of the Navy, and therefore that Department may be governed today by its basic wage act of 1861 as reenacted in a recent recodification.[3] This law, instead of having the phrase "in accordance with prevailing rates," states that pay shall conform with rates "of private establishments in the immediate vicinity." The Classification Act language permits consideration of other public pay rates, such as local and state jurisdictions; the Navy law does not.

More significant is the provision in law affecting the Government Printing Office, the Kiess Act of June 7, 1924, providing that wages shall be set, subject to approval of the Joint Committee on Printing of the Congress, by conference between the Public Printer and trade committees. The practice of collective bargaining, or to be more precise, employee consultation ending in written agreement, is followed by the Tennessee Valley Authority and some segments of the Department of the Interior.

Methods of Setting Pay

The methods used in pay setting and in pay administration vary considerably among the agencies but have many common elements. Generally speaking, rates are set on the basis of data collected locally in surveys by representatives of the agencies concerned. The surveys are based on samples of the market.

For most of the workers, who are in production, repair, or maintenance occupations, a cross-industry sample of manufacturing firms is used. For laundry rates, only laundry firms are in the sample; for printing rates, only printing establishments.

Data are usually collected by interview, and, characteristically, great care is used to establish the comparability of the jobs in government with the matching jobs in private industry.

Usually such surveys are conducted annually, or when there are signs that the market has changed. Generally, agencies having a common interest in an area will survey jointly to avoid duplicating contacts with industry. Many of the smaller agencies do no surveying but follow the data found or the rates established by the larger agencies.

Three Systems in Use

There are three basically different systems in use in the federal service for the analysis of data and the setting of rates. We may, for convenience, identify these systems as follows: the Unadjusted Prevailing Rate System; the Prevailing Rate Adjusted by Evaluation System; and the Prevailing Rate Adjusted by Averages System.

The first method has limited use in parts of the Departments of the Treasury, Interior, Agriculture, and elsewhere. It uses average or selected rates obtained in labor market surveys to set rates directly, occupation by occupation, without adjustment for desired alignment.

By this method, in one area, the machinist rate may exceed the electrician rate; in another area, the opposite will be true. Generally, agencies using this method apply it to relatively few employees and in not many localities.

The Prevailing Rate Adjusted by Evaluation System is used by the Departments of Army and Air Force, and by a number of other agencies patterning their practices after these two major departments.

[2] Also a special definition is included applicable to the Bureau of Engraving and Printing.
[3] Section 7474, Title 10, U. S. Code (Public Law 1028, 84th Congress).

Basically, the system as used by these departments is an adaptation of standard factor comparison techniques. Scales on five factors—Experience and Training, Responsibility, Mental Application, Physical Demands, and Working Conditions—were constructed on selected key occupations by a consultant group. Additional jobs are evaluated with reference to these factor scales. Rates are set by a sampling of 29 key survey jobs; a line of least squares is constructed from the data obtained.

The third system is used exclusively by the Department of the Navy, although some other agencies use the results. It is a system originally designed to obtain two results: (1) a consistent pattern of job alignment nationwide, permitting local prevailing rate to have a general effect; and (2) the avoidance of "job evaluation" in the process. To achieve these results, something completely new in rate setting was developed.

On the basis of data from 10 major labor market areas, national averages of selected trades were constructed. It was discovered that five of these trades, basic to shipyard operations, were paid about the same: machinist, electrician, shipfitter, sheet metal worker, and pipefitter. All trades helper data were then averaged. The difference between these points, nationally, was about 40¢ per hour.

Other trades on which data were available were averaged and their proportional position between helper and the machinist point was established. This set their index relationship to each other, which is called the National Average of Differences Index.

Then, as local surveys are analyzed, the two basic points in the area wage line are set tentatively from local helper and basic trades data. Data for other occupations surveyed are then used to influence these two key points in the wage line in order to avoid distortion of local job values. It is also used as needed to correct the National Average of Differences Index.

Differences in systems of rate setting are paralleled by differences in the application of rates to positions through job analysis, classification and evaluation, and position identification. As would be presumed to be true, the agencies deriving pay rates from evaluation also use detailed evaluation processes to "grade" individual positions. Such techniques as detailed job analysis through work audit, job-breakdown, and individual position descriptions are characteristic of these agencies. Systems having closer relationship to market patterns, and which shy away from evaluation in rate setting, also avoid it in the application of rates to individual positions, using simplified and gross classification processes to accomplish this task.

Summary

In summary, the "wage board system" of the United States government is a complex of numerous systems for the setting of pay and for pay administration for the blue-collar workers. These systems vary but have many points in common. An examination of basic differences among agencies, as is intended in a future article, may explain some of the differences in wage policies and procedures.

This is the first part of a 2-part article on the Federal Wage Board Program. Part II will appear in the January, 1959, issue of *Public Personnel Review*.

Weekly Quiz Aids in Training Program . . .

A quiz for policemen is printed in the weekly bulletin of the Arlington County, Virginia, Police Department, and the patrolmen's answers are studied to determine where more training is needed.

Although individual policemen are not graded, the over-all scores test the effectiveness of training programs on rules of evidence, methods of determining intoxication, police courtesy, and investigation techniques.—News release, International City Managers' Association.

Nationwide Recruitment for a Personnel Director

Richard B. Piatt

What preparations to make, what procedures to follow, what costs to expect in an all-out search for the right man.

"Section 8.010 Personnel Director—Duties—There shall be a Personnel Director. Unless otherwise provided by ordinance, the Director of Finance shall serve as Personnel Director."

UNDER the above-cited provisions of the charter of the Metropolitan St. Louis Sewer District, the Director of Finance served as Personnel Director for 3½ years. However, it was only the last 2 years of the period that the District was in full operation, encompassing some 475 covered positions and 75 classes. The 1957-58 personnel budget was $1,931,465.20. A personnel supervisor and a clerk constituted the full-time personnel staff during this 2-year period.

Throughout this time there was a growing awareness on the part of everyone connected with the personnel operation of the District that full-time direction was needed for the program. Thus, on November 1, 1958, the District Civil Service Commission recommended to the Board of Trustees that the position of Personnel Director be created. Approval was granted by the Board on December 2 along with the request that an eligible list be compiled by the Commission.

The Public Personnel Association was contacted for information relative to recruitment, testing, etc., while individual Commission members contacted local sources for comparable data.

Drafting the Job Specification

The Commission's first step was to examine the job to be done and draft a job specification. Involved in this procedure was the determination of what minimum requirements would be established. It was the consensus of the Commission that absolute minimums should be avoided, so far as possible, to prevent an automatic throwout of the exceptional candidate. The "desirable" qualifications finally established were:

> Graduation from a recognized college or university. Five years personnel experience. Three years supervisory personnel experience. Some governmental experience. Twenty-eight years, minimum desirable age.

The Commission agreed that if an adequate, written, subject-matter examination could be secured it would be used for screening purposes.

After investigation of possibilities, a written qualifying examination to be prepared by PPA was decided upon as a screening device to be coupled with a review of experience and training to determine candidates to be interviewed. PPA was instructed to insure that the test prepared would not exclude private industry personnel workers on the basis of public terminology or nonessential facts relating exclusively to public personnel practice. A screening board of non-District personnel was proposed and agreed upon to conduct initial interviews. The board would be composed of three members; one each from government, industry, and a university department of public administration.

Three main factors entered into the establishment of a salary range for the position: (1) the local market, public and private, for comparable positions; (2) salaries paid in public agencies throughout the country as derived from the Civil Service Assembly publication "Budgets, Staffs, and Pay Rates of Public Personnel Agencies 1956;" and (3) other salaries paid by the District. The salary range was finally established at $8,000-$9,600 per year.

How Wide a Field?

A decision of major consequence was whether recruitment would be restricted to

TABLE I
SOURCE OF APPLICATIONS

	Government	*Private*	*Total*
St. Louis newspaper ads	5	37	42
Out-of-town newspaper ads	2	63	65
Notice mailed—PPA membership	31	—	31
State employment service	1	1	2
ICMA & PPA publications	2	—	2
Personal reference & miscellaneous	1	11	12
Unknown	—	1	1
	42	113	155

the St. Louis area or conducted nationwide. "Patronize home industry" vs. getting the best possible, regardless, was soon settled in favor of the latter. The main point at issue then became the feasibility of conducting such a broad recruitment with the District's limited staff. The final decision was that the effort required for nationwide recruitment would be worth the effort.

Intensive recruitment for the St. Louis area, some general recruitment for nearby metropolitan areas, and notification to public agency personnel throughout the country seemed in order for carrying out the program decided upon.

In St. Louis, large display advertisements were run in each of the two local daily newspapers, one each on Sunday and one each in special year-end editions. The local industrial relations organization, the Missouri State Employment Office, and prominent personnel executives in the community were contacted and informed of the opening.

For nearby metropolitan areas, the same display ad used in St. Louis was published one Sunday in a Kansas City and a Chicago paper. All newspaper ads stated that the opening was with a public agency, stipulated "desirable" qualifications and requested a complete résumé to be forwarded to a newspaper box number.

District membership in PPA simplified the nationwide recruitment aspect of the program. After discussion with the Chicago office, 2,000 letterhead envelopes were sent to "1313." These envelopes, addressed by PPA to its membership throughout the United States, were returned to us for mailing. In addition, notices were placed in the "Personnel Man" and the I.C.M.A. Newsletter.

As a result of this widespread recruiting program, 155 applications were received. Table I shows the source of these applications. Separate columns show the applicants classed as government personnel workers as opposed to those whose background lay in private industry.

Analysis of Applications

Applications were received from 25 states and 1 Canadian province. Missouri furnished 61 (39.35%) of the applicants and Illinois 40 (25.81%). Twelve states had 1 applicant each and 4 had 5 or more.

Table II shows the educational distribution of the applicants who survived the various phases of the selection process:

TABLE II
EDUCATION OF APPLICANTS

Educational Level	*Applied But Did Not Take Test*	*Failed Written Examination*	*Passed Written Examination. Not Selected*	*Selected For Interview*	*Total*
Graduate degree*	15	2	11	4	32
Graduate work*	2	—	15	1	18
Undergraduate degree	41	10	22	3	76
Undergraduate work	5	7	5	1	18
No college	8	2	1	—	11

* All candidates in these categories also possess undergraduate degrees.

The arithmetic mean of all applicants' ages, excluding 4 on whom the data was not available, was 37.38 years. The average of those who took and passed the written examination was 36.63 years. The oldest applicant was 69 and the youngest 25. Both took the examination but only the younger passed.

Five women made application for the position, 3 from government work and 2 from private industry. Three, 2 from government and 1 from industry, took the examination and all passed with identical grades.

Test Content

The written, qualifying test prepared by PPA consisted of 175 four-option, multiple-choice questions. Table III shows the subject-matter content of the written test:

TABLE III

Category	*No. of Items*
General Principles of Personnel Administration	10
Misc. Specific Principles and Techn. of Pers. Admin.	15
Classification	20
Compensation	20
Selection	25
Training	10
Supervision	15
Interviewing	10
Recruitment	10
Performance Rating	10
Methods Analysis	10
Organization Analysis	10
Research	10

This test, originally prepared for the MSD, had not been standardized as a whole and so presented a problem in establishing a qualifying level. Various passing points, such as 50% of the total number of questions, one standard deviation below the arithmetic mean, and 70% of the total number of questions were considered. The passing point was finally established as follows:

¼ of total 175 questions (should be correct by chance)	43.75
50% of balance of questions	65.63
qualifying	109.38

Test Preparations

In cooperation with PPA, a list of public agencies was prepared and 22 were contacted as to their willingness to monitor the written examination. All of them agreed to assist and only one requested a fee for doing so. Just prior to actual conduct of the examination, telephone requests were received from 2 applicants to change their examination location which was done. In addition to the testing by outside agencies, the examination was conducted in St. Louis for 40 candidates.

Letters were then sent all applicants informing them of their examination number and where and when the examination would be conducted. The letter also was used for admission to the examination.

A test kit was prepared for each monitoring agency including numbered examination books and answer sheets for each candidate, a monitor's manual, a numbered list of candidates with space for signature of each, a copy of the admission letter sent candidates, and labels, postage, and envelopes for returning the material.

Weighing the Results

Eighty-four of the 155 applicants took the written examination, and 63 candidates were qualified on the basis of a cutting score of 109. The mean score on the test was 122.6 and sigma was 17.92. A split-half reliability coefficient, corrected by the Spearman-Brown formula, was .91.

A number of qualified individuals were consulted concerning the weighing of experience and training and a schedule was established as follows:

Graduate training	maximum value	2.40
Undergraduate training	maximum value	3.20
Work experience	maximum value	10.00
	100% =	15.60

Training credit was dependent upon the type of education and the quantity. Experience credit was given only for the 15 years immediately prior to application. Six classes of experience were established with credit given in 5-year increments.

No candidate who passed the written examination was ruled out automatically on

TABLE IV
EXPERIENCE & TRAINING RATING OF APPLICANTS WHO TOOK WRITTEN EXAMINATION

Training & Experience Rating	*Government*	*Private*	*Total*
0— 1.99	—	2	2
2.00— 2.99	—	5	5
3.00— 3.99	3	4	7
4.00— 4.99	3	5	8
5.00— 5.99	3	10	13
6.00— 6.99	5	9	14
7.00— 7.99	5	7	12
8.00— 8.99	8	6	14
9.00— 9.99	2	4	6
10.00—10.99	1	—	1
11.00—11.99	1	1	2
Over 11.99	—	—	—
	31	53	84

his experience and training rating but, rather, ratings were used to point out to the Civil Service Commission the most outstanding candidates based on this point of view. Table IV shows the results of this weighing for the 84 candidates who took the examination. Applicants classified as government personnel workers are shown separately from those whose backgrounds had been in private industry.

A coefficient of correlation was run on the relationship between the written examination grades and the experience and training rating. The resulting coefficient was .570. A similar coefficient on only those applicants classified as government personnel workers was .422. However, 61.90% of the top quarter of written test grades was made by persons classified as government workers primarily. Also, 43.33% of the individuals classified as government workers had grades in the top quarter of the written test results.

No attempt was made to establish a graded eligible list based on the above results, but, rather, the weighted experience and training score was used as a guide to reduce the review work of the Civil Service Commission of the District.

One-page data sheets were prepared on each candidate who took the examination, showing education, details of experience, and some personal data such as age and marital status. Experience and training were weighted on these sheets and the written examination grade shown.

No formal ranking of candidates was made by either examination grade or experience and training rating. Each of the 3 Civil Service Commissioners was given a copy of all data sheets for his perusal. This was done primarily to reduce the labor for each Commissioner of detailed reading of each of 63 applications. After looking over the data sheets each Commissioner then selected applications of those candidates in whom he was interested for a more detailed review.

The Interview

After several meetings of the Commission, 9 candidates were selected for interview. All candidates who had passed the test were notified of whether or not they had been selected for interview and an interview schedule was established. Candidates were also asked to submit, in advance, some written material of their composition for the Commission's review. Meanwhile, the screening board had been selected and a plan of interview drawn up.

In the selection of candidates for interview, many candidates with high written grades and a large amount of experience were passed over because their experience had been largely restricted to a single aspect of personnel management such as classification, training, etc. The District's Commission felt that a broad background was necessary to handle a total personnel program.

Of the 9 candidates selected for interview,

TABLE V
ITEMIZED COSTS OF PERSONNEL DIRECTOR SELECTION

1. *Recruitment*			
a. Announcements (2,000)			
Paper, time, stencils	$ 38.35		
Postage to PPA for addressing	1.45		
Envelopes	20.60		
Addressing by PPA	20.00		
Postage to prospects	38.22	$118.62	
b. Newspaper advertisements (6)			
Local (4)	205.26		
Out-of-town (2)	97.49	302.75	
c. Misc. correspondence		7.08	
Total recruiting			$ 428.45
2. *Testing*			
a. Test construction (contractual)		250.00	
b. Printing tests, paper & covers (200)		184.06	
c. Test kit preparation & mailing (23)			
Cover letters	1.50		
Monitor's instructions	2.30		
Answer sheets (200)	2.86		
Lists of candidates	4.05		
Admission letters	.23		
Envelopes	1.14		
Postage & return	38.99	51.07	
d. Correspondence with applicants			
Acknowledgment of applications	10.79		
Advice of time & location of test	10.56		
Pass-fail notice	7.49	28.84	
e. Telegrams to and from monitoring agencies to set up written test		72.71	
f. Telephone calls to PPA and consultants re: test & experience & training rating		29.40	
g. Preparation of summary sheets, one each candidate		25.39	
Total testing			641.47
3. *Interviews*			
a. Reference letters & other clerical			
Notice concerning interviews	6.83		
Pass-fail interview & other correspondence	2.15		
Reference letters	1.75	10.73	
b. Telephone calls to candidates for interview		5.32	
c. Transportation for interviewed candidates (3)		223.42	
Total Interview			239.47
TOTAL FOR PROGRAM			$1,309.39

5 were from St. Louis and 4 from out-of-town. One of these withdrew leaving 8 finalists.

The screening board, as finally established, consisted of a prominent, local attorney and former Civil Service Commissioner of the City of St. Louis, the Director of the Ninth Regional Federal Civil Service, and a member of the department of government of St. Louis University.

The candidates were divided into two groups and interviews held on two successive mornings. Both days, after the screening board had completed its interviews, the Civil Service Commission and the Executive Director of the District met with the candidates at lunch and talked with them in an informal group interview.

The screening board submitted a ranked list of the 8 candidates to the Commission and from this list the Commission submitted an eligible list of 3 names to the Executive Director, who is the appointing authority for District department heads. From this list, the Executive Director made his appointment; the new Personnel Director assuming office on April 1, 1958. A total of 4 months, lacking 1 day, was consumed from the day the Board of Trustees authorized the creation of the new position until the new Director was at his desk.

What It Cost

Throughout the entire recruitment and selection process, records were kept of work performed, materials used, services contracted, and all other cost items. These costs were segregated into the various phases of the program, namely, recruitment, testing, and interview. The costs as shown in Table V are all direct in nature and include no overhead items. An additional cost to the District was that of the use of its auditing firm to handle the reproduction and mailing of the written test and the grading thereof. Because many agencies may not consider such security measures necessary, the cost thereof is excluded.

An examination of costs in terms of unit costs is shown in Table VI.

From a practical point of view, one of the most obvious reasons for examining costs is to determine a cheaper way to accomplish the same results. Following is an examination of each item in excess of $100.00, plus other selected items.

1a—Announcements

A mimeographed announcement was used and if this broad a coverage is desired costs could not be cut substantially.

1b—Advertisements

Depends only on how broad a coverage is desired.

2a—Test construction

Possibly could be reduced by the agency constructing its own test. The question then arises, is agency set up to design this level of test?

2b—Printing tests

Could be reduced substantially by mimeographing test.

2e & f—Telegrams & telephones

Could be reduced to next to nothing by allowing set up time to use regular correspondence.

3c—Transportation

Obviously depends on number of candidates brought in for interview from what distance.

While these costs have been related to applicants in Table VI, it should be recog-

TABLE VI

Cost of Selection of Personnel Director
By Candidate—Each Phase & Total

Phase	*No. of Candidates*	*Total Cost*	*Phase Cost per Candidate*	*Total Cost per Candidate**
Recruitment	155	$428.45	$ 2.76	$ 2.76
Testing	84	641.47	7.64	12.74
Interview	8	239.47	29.93	163.67

* Pro-rated as to candidates still participating at this phase of the selection process.

nized that even a substantial increase or decrease in number of applicants would not seriously affect the total cost except for item 3c, transportation of interviewed candidates.

What It Proved

This paper has been prepared in a manner that allows, it is hoped, facts to speak for themselves, and thus the necessity for a subjective statement of conclusion is avoided. So far as the writer is concerned this project has proven the practicability of nationwide recruitment for key personnel, even by a small agency. More important, the Civil Service Commission and officers of the Metropolitan St. Louis Sewer District feel assured in their own minds that everything possible has been done to insure that the best man has been secured for the position of Personnel Director.

Assistance in the preparation of this paper was given the writer by Mr. Lloyd Johnson of the District Civil Service Commission.

Another Freedom . . .

Freedom to fail—the freedom to act, take risks, and make decisions without fear of the consequences is a necessary part of "bottom-up management," J. S. Hutchins, Executive Vice President, American Brake Shoe Company, explained.

Mr. Hutchins defined his company's philosophy of "bottom-up management" as that which operated largely from the bottom of a company up rather than being imposed arbitrarily from the top down.

Responsibility is spread throughout the organization in an effort to release thinking and encourage initiative all down the line. Freedom from fear is an inherent component. "You cannot give a man freedom and then put a checkrein on his initiative and judgment. You cannot tell him he is free to make decisions and then constantly criticize his decisions—or, even worse, punish him if they prove to have been unwise. No, he must either be free or not free. There should be no middle ground here," he declared.

The practice of letting both rank-and-file and lower-echelon management people solve problems is basic to the bottom-up process. In his company, he remarked, foremen help to negotiate union contracts and often sit down with the plant superintendent and union officials to work out the details of a contract. "They are the men who have to live with the contract, and we believe they should have the principal voice in establishing its terms," he stated. Under this philosophy, a large staff of labor relations experts is not needed. "We have found our plant superintendents and foremen perfectly capable of handling the job."

As in other kinds of management, there sometimes comes the need to eliminate weak organization links, Mr. Hutchins admitted. In bottom-up management, where decision-making and responsibility-sharing are vital, it may sometimes become necessary to shift or remove executives who are competent in themselves but refuse to trust the ability of their subordinates. To be effective, bottom-up management must permeate all levels of a company. Unless every executive is thoroughly indoctrinated in its philosophy and practices, it can be one of the weakest instead of one of the strongest forms of management, he observed.—*AMA Conference News*, February 17-19, 1958.

A Commentary on Multiple-Choice Test Item Criteria

Dorothy C. Adkins

The following commentary by Dr. Adkins on Mr. Wakefield's article is accompanied by a reply from the author of the original article.

Comparing five-choice items with four-choice items, James Wakefield concluded that his results "appear to indicate that under the conditions of test construction at the California State Personnel Board, four-choice items are actually somewhat more effective over-all."[1] His method was to compute, for items ranging in difficulty between 20 and 80 per cent, the percentages of items with varying numbers of distracters drawing more than 5 per cent of the subjects. A distracter "functioned" if it was chosen by more than 5 per cent, and an item was "acceptable" when two or more of its distracters "functioned." His table follows:

Distracter Performance of 4- and 5-Choice Test Items

	4-Choice Items (N = 3752)	*5-Choice Items (N = 3294)*
Four distracters functioning	—	3%
Three distracters functioning	16%	13%
Two distracters functioning	41%	34%
One distracter functioning	40%	41%
No distracters functioning	3%	9%

Wakefield noted that 57 per cent of the four-choice items versus 50 per cent of the five-choice items were "acceptable" (i.e., had two or more distracters "functioning") and suggested "that the additional effort to produce five-choice items is, on the whole, not producing worth-while results."

The basis of comparison used and the conclusions reached are open to question from several considerations:

1. The worth of an item as a whole in serving some predictive purpose is not related to whether *some* subjects select *each* distracter, but rather is determined by *which* subjects select *any* distracter. The relationship of an item to a criterion will be exactly the same if a particular group of subjects concentrates upon one distracter as if this group of subjects disperses its choices over several distracters.

Hence Wakefield's concept of the effectiveness of an item is faulty. Clearly an item could meet his criterion of "acceptability" or other criteria similarly constructed and still be completely worthless.

2. Even if one agrees to his notion of the "functioning" of a distracter, a criterion based upon the percentage of subjects who select a distracter before it is regarded as functioning should differ with the number of distracters per item.

Suppose, for example, that this percentage is fixed at 5 and the difficulty level is at Wakefield's extreme, 80. Suppose further for the moment that there are no "omits." Then all such two-choice items will have 20 per cent selecting the single distracter; all such three-choice items will have an average of 10 per cent selecting each of two distracters; four-choice items an average of 6⅔ per cent selecting each of three distracters; and five-choice items an average of 5 per cent selecting each of four distracters.

Under these conditions, all items with five or fewer choices must of necessity have

[1] James A. Wakefield, "Does the Fifth Choice Strengthen a Test Item?", *Public Personnel Review*, January, 1958, pp. 44-47.

at least one functioning distracter simply because the average percentage of subjects selecting each choice would be at least 5.

For items more difficult than the 80 per cent level, the average percentages would be even greater. The average percentage would reach 20, for example, for five-choice items passed by 20 per cent of the subjects. Thus clearly when omits are excluded the average percentage for all items in the survey must be at least 5.

Even for the five-choice items at the extreme of the difficulty range used, to suppose that for more than a handful of items the choices were spread evenly over the distracters is unreasonable. Hence, exclusive of omits, nearly 100 per cent of the items should have had at least one distracter functioning, by Wakefield's criterion.

3. In the light of this necessity, the finding that 9 per cent (or 296) of the five-choice items and 3 per cent (or 113) of the four-choice items had *no* distracters functioning is indeed curious. The only explanation that has occurred to the author for these anomalous results is that Mr. Wakefield may have failed to provide properly for omits in making his counts.

If such a serious error were made, then the average percentage of subjects selecting each distracter for either four- or five-choice items could be less than 5 even for the easiest items. Theoretically, it could be as low as zero if all subjects not selecting the correct answer failed to mark any other answer as well.

If treatment of omits is the explanation for the fact that some items had no functioning distracters, one can only speculate further as to the remarkable difference between four- and five-choice items in this respect. Perhaps more of the five-choice items were included in speeded tests, so that more of them were omitted for lack of time. The greater use of five-choice items than of four-choice items for vocabulary tests and tests on clerical subject matter, which often are speeded, lends some credence to this thought.

4. Aside from the weakness of any type of criterion for distracter functioning that is based solely upon the number of persons who select it, such a criterion must vary with the percentage of subjects who would be expected to select each distracter by chance. This in turn will vary with item difficulty level. One possibility would be to start with a table of criterion percentages as follows:

CRITERION PERCENTAGES

Difficulty	*4-Choice Items*	*5-Choice Items*
80	20/3 = 6.67	20/4 = 5.00
79	21/3 = 7.00	21/4 = 5.25
78	22/3 = 7.33	22/4 = 5.50
77	23/3 = 7.67	23/4 = 5.75
76	24/3 = 8.00	24/4 = 6.00
75	25/3 = 8.33	25/4 = 6.25
74	26/3 = 8.67	26/4 = 6.50
—	—	—
—	—	—
—	—	—
—	—	—
—	—	—
21	79/3 = 26.33	79/4 = 19.75
20	80/3 = 26.67	80/4 = 20.00

5. The arguments in paragraphs 2 and 4 also reveal that Wakefield's results may well have been contaminated by different difficulty distributions for his four-choice and his five-choice items. Since chance expectations would differ tremendously from one difficulty level to another, the distribution of difficulty values would markedly affect the percentages of distracters considered as "functioning" by a criterion that is constant irrespective of item difficulty.

6. Perhaps more significant than any of the foregoing statistical considerations is the

fact that his approach completely ignores the order in which the distracters were written. Granting that typical item-writers feel that the first distracters they produce are more painless to them than the last, choices that are written with more effort often may prove more distracting.

The basic question, then, is how the order in which distracters are produced is related to their effect upon the discriminating power of items. A related problem then would be to determine the number of distracters for which diminishing returns generally would be evident.

Apart from the other objections to Wakefield's approach which seem to invalidate his conclusions, his data did not lend themselves to tackling the heart of the dispute over number of options in multiple-choice questions, once a criterion for effectiveness of distracters has been agreed upon. To the author's knowledge, appropriate data to answer this question have not been assembled and analyzed, but the problem is soluble.

We may note in passing that distracters that fail to meet an appropriate criterion of effectiveness may be discarded, thus reducing the number of distracters in five-choice items to perhaps two or three without appreciable sacrifice of item quality. This procedure, however, is quite different from reduction in number of distracters by the expedient of not having them written and hence not available for analysis in the first place.

A Reply to Doctor Adkins

James A. Wakefield
Associate Personnel Analyst

I GREATLY APPRECIATE the careful attention Dr. Adkins has given my study of distracter functioning, especially in her incisive exposure of certain crudities in the treatment of the data. With regard to her questions about the criteria employed, I am not entirely willing to say that I should change my ways. Concerning her attempt to shift the emphasis of the study from its relevance to a practical administrative problem (whether to foster the development of five-choice items rather than four-choice items) to a broader theoretical context in which a number of related problems might be solved, I can only agree with the spirit of the enterprise while failing to see that the unsolved problems reflect discredit on the information actually obtained.

The following remarks are numbered to correspond in general with the sections of Dr. Adkins' article with which they deal:

1. My study was limited to determining item effectiveness in terms of distracter performance, leaving other aspects of item effectiveness unexplored. I can only regret that Dr. Adkins concluded that I was trying to cover all that might be implied by the term "effectiveness". It would be interesting to investigate the hypothesis that "valid" items have a different distracter performance from "invalid" items and to compare four-choice vs. five-choice items within this more restricted field, but this is not the problem to which the present study was addressed, and I do not believe that it needs to be solved before a study of the present sort can be considered useful.

2. (Also 4. and 5.) The problem of finding an appropriate criterion is always with us. Dr. Adkins finds mine too liberal and would apply one based on chance expectations, varying according to the number of distracters included in the item and the obtained level of difficulty of the item. This is like saying that, although we know in advance that distracters differ in plausibility, we shall treat them as if they did not differ; we shall expect every distracter to draw more than its "chance expectation" of competitors before we shall admit that it is functioning. Such a criterion would seem to ignore the obvious psychology of the situation.

Persons who respond to test items in achievement tests in their own fields rarely do so by chance or at random, they usually

choose a wrong alternative because they believe that it is right. (Distracters are constructed to do just this.) Most items are likely to have one or two distracters that are inherently more plausible than the rest, and the remaining distracters will necessarily draw less than a chance expectation of competitors. The choice of a criterion becomes more or less arbitrary in this situation, and it might as well be liberal as not.

The 5 per cent criterion used in the present study has seemed reasonable as a commonsense definition of a functioning distracter. If wrong responses were distributed in completely random fashion, the 5 per cent criterion would give every item included in this study an opportunity to qualify as fully functioning. It is the departure from full functioning recorded in this study that is the feature of interest from an administrative point of view.

It is true that the criterion makes it easier for distracters to qualify as the items become more difficult and have more wrong responses, but I do not think that this does as much violence to the data as the severe variable criterion would do.

3. How does one "provide properly for omits" in treating item response data? Discussions of this problem available to me do not indicate that there is a clear-cut answer. Probably the only realistic solution is to adopt a cutoff point in terms of a proportion of the total competing group and to eliminate from consideration all items omitted by proportions exceeding this cutoff point. A retabulation of our sample of items in terms of such a criterion is not feasible at this time, but results which are probably substantially similar can be obtained by simply eliminating all items with no functioning distracter and recomputing percentages as follows:

	4-Choice Items (N=3639)	*5-Choice Items* (N=2998)
4 distracters functioning	—	3%
3 distracters functioning	17%	14%
2 distracters functioning	42%	38%
1 distracter functioning	41%	45%

In this comparison, the percentage of "acceptable" four-choice items is 59 per cent, while that of five-choice items is 55 per cent. In order to go along more completely with Dr. Adkins' hypotheses, we can purify the results to an even greater extent by eliminating all clerical and vocabulary items from the study, giving us the following results:

	4-Choice Items (N=3479)	*5-Choice Items* (N=2380)
4 distracters functioning	—	4%
3 distracters functioning	17%	15%
2 distracters functioning	42%	38%
1 distracter functioning	41%	43%

In this comparison, the percentage of "acceptable" four-choice items is 59 per cent, while that of five-choice items is 57 per cent. The trend of these recomputed results is obviously away from the original results, but, in spite of the drastic nature of the deletions, I do not see any clear superiority emerging for five-choice items; the most that seems likely is that the two types may prove to be equal in performance. Even this weakened result permits the same conclusion, namely, that the additional effort required to produce five-choice items is not justified in our situation.

6. Here, again, Dr. Adkins has proposed certain questions for which it would be interesting to obtain answers and which we may hope eventually to see investigated. I may be permitted to doubt that a positive verdict on these points is more likely than a negative one. Meanwhile, we know that both four-choice and five-choice items can yield a wide range of validity coefficients and that, as this study informs us, neither type can be expected to have a full complement of functioning distracters in most cases.

Under these circumstances, in a testing program in which most of the items are doomed to go without statistical analysis and subsequent revision for a variety of reasons, insistence upon five-choice items in the hope that the final distracters written will be better than the others would seem to be expensive counsel.

Master of the Fast Answer? . . .

Criteria of good personnel administration are the frequency or infrequency with which department heads and other executives come to you for help in dealing with their employee problems. This is directly proportional to the nature of your personal attitudes and objectives in giving help.

If you find that you can give him credit for having ironed out the rough spots, if you find personal satisfaction in helping a supervisor maintain his self-pride without injuring his ego, then you have taken a big step toward successfully fulfilling a personnel function. But, if a department head feels that you are going to lord it over him by your superior knowledge, or infer that he is "stupid," he will not come to you for help.

. . . .

There are no experts in human relations—a point of reference which should be basic in our thinking and continuously reflected in our attitudes. There is no greater fraud or no more superficial individual than a personnel administrator who has a ready answer for the most difficult problems in life. Even when we think we have a patent solution to someone else's "simple problem," we dare not indicate that we think his problem is so simple. Too often the facade of simplicity hides the most complex network of emotions, biases, and experiences manifested in the reactions that are so difficult to predict.—Excerpts from a talk by A. L. Belcher, Director of Industrial Relations, Pillsbury Mills, Inc.

research and results

edited by Cecil E. Goode

PROGRESS AND PROMISE IN TESTING

PERSONNEL TESTING came into vogue early in the history of personnel management, and its popularity has continued down through the years. In the eyes of some practitioners, reliance on tests as a personnel selection device objectified the handling of people—just as the handling of machines, stock levels, and profit-and-loss statements had been routinized so that judgment was minimized.

Managers have relied on tests because they relieved them of the necessity for making difficult and potentially disturbing decisions on people. Tests provide a record that can be blamed or cited as the reason that one person was selected over another. But there is an increasing realization that the state of the testing art does not justify this trust; in fact, tests probably will never substitute for judgment although they may make judgment more reliable.

Where We Stand

Traditionally, there has been more research effort on tests than on any other aspect of personnel management. We are now beginning to reach the point of payoff in some of this effort but there are still some fundamental problems that remain unsolved. Various tests, such as of typing and shorthand skill, of manual or motor aptitudes, of knowledge, and of general mental ability, have reached the stage where considerable reliance can be placed upon them. Other areas like personality measurement and criterion development still require pioneering effort.

Business and industry are employing more psychologists to develop testing programs and interpret results. While the public service in general has probably done more testing and has accepted test results with more faith than has industry, it probably has less to show for it. The traditional pattern in government is to use tests to rank order a list of eligibles without much concern whether the tests really measure what they are supposed to. Government selection tests are in the main unstandardized and unproved—many times no better than the hiring official's judgment—but they provide numerical scores which can be leaned on and pointed to as something absolute and not subject to administrative caprice.

Progress

While there has been some steady progress in personnel testing for the last 10 years, there have been no startling break-throughs. There have been continual refinements in the fields of education, industry, military service, and civil government, but no glamorous discoveries have emerged.

Harold Seashore puts it this way, "Frankly, I don't see any unusual or new research in industrial testing that warrants discussion. I think the newer developments which show promise are just extensions of good research sense and better application of known techniques to old problems."

Refinements. Progress has been made in the development of more appropriate tests for special purposes, both as to subject matter and range of skill, knowledge, aptitude, or whatever factor is tested. In the earlier days, mental ability tests were adaptations of tests devised for use in schools. Consequently, the range of ability embraced the moron and the genius. However, for personnel purposes, rarely do we have this wide range of abilities. As pointed out by Seashore, "If one is

hiring clerks, one rarely has morons or geniuses as applicants. If one is hiring salesmen, one rarely has morons and if one is hiring at the top managerial level, most applicants are above the IQ of 100." We are now tending to develop personnel tests to fit the actual subject matter involved and the practical range of skills or abilities existing in the labor market from which applicants are drawn.

Improved methods of statistical analysis have made possible the development of factor tests—those measuring unitary factors rather than a complex of factors, as represented in the usual intelligence tests. Says Raymond B. Cattell, "As I have indicated, the most interesting and promising feature of recent research is the development of objective, nonselfrevelatory or self-evaluative tests for defined unitary psychological factors." Such tests make it possible to determine just what factors are needed and then to test for them.

Another development is in the direction of specific rather than generalized norms. The old tests had norms based on men in general but modern tests seem to be standardized on a variety of populations with each population presented in the norms tables for whatever use and interpretation the user of the test may wish to make. In fact, this trend encourages each using organization to develop its own norms to fit its own situation.

Complex job performance situations such as supervisory and executive positions really involve complex patterns of skill requirements. There is an increasing tendency to approach the testing of applicants for these positions through the use of test batteries or a group of unitary tests, together with various ratings that have not as yet been reduced to more objective testing techniques.

Examples of these rating areas are the rating of biographic data, the rating of past performance, and detailed background investigations. There is increased use of profiles leading to the establishment of optimum combinations of desirable attributes.

Machines. Probably the one most "glamorous" development during recent years has been the use of electronic data processing machines and other mechanical devices for analysis of tests. Techniques are being developed for the manipulation of multiple factors through the use of electronic computers. Formerly, the manipulation of 2 or 3 factors was a complex operation involving untold manhours of work, but now a multitude of factors can be studied almost instantaneously. The pioneering work done on the development of unitary factor tests by Cattell at the University of Illinois and J. P. Guilford at the University of Southern California have been made possible by the new computer techniques.

Machines also show promise as test instruments themselves. For example, the Psychological Corporation is experimenting with an electromechanical device for testing problem solving ability. Recently, the University of Chicago used an electrical machine to experiment with problem solving in chemists.

Promise

There is a rising conviction of the need for more research. Certainly government personnel organizations, since they have placed so much reliance on tests, should be interested in doing more research to prove their tests. Cattell states this point convincingly:

> Most personnel men seem quite happy to guess that, say, a high score on a special ability test is what is needed for a good draftsman. We do not know that this is a fact, and, in many instances which I could point to, this common sense assumption has been quite wrong.
>
> Considering the amount of money spent on personnel work, and the relatively small amount of money which would be needed to determine occupational efficiencies in terms of the known personality and ability tests, the situation at present represents a masterpiece of waste. With $5,000 worth of research in a firm, to obtain the correlations between the psychological measures and the criterion, I could save any decent-sized firm perhaps, at a modest estimate, about $50,000 a year, but the majority prefer to go using tests by "rule-of-thumb," and personnel men's popular preconceptions.

In recent years, research has become a part of our way of life. We are now spending at least $7 billion a year for research on product development, industrial processes, military science, space science, and medicine, but very little is being devoted to re-

search on human behavior. These elements will need to be kept in better balance.

Certain areas show promise of valuable results during the next few years ahead. There are probably others but these are commonly agreed as needing early attention:

Definition of Criteria. There has not been sufficient imagination in the discovery and description of criteria of successful performance in the fields for which tests are used. S. Rains Wallace prophesies that "The most fruitful research during the next 10 years will, I believe, lie in the field of criterion investigation and analysis."

Albert H. Aronson states the problem of criterion and validity:

> Where validity indices are low in relation to reports of performance, there is often a real question as to whether to toss the test aside or disregard the so-called criterion. Judgments of performance and ratings of training and experience are less reliable, paradoxically, as they become more important. It is harder to differentiate between the good administrator and the mediocre one—practically no one who is serving as an administrator is ever rated as poor—than to differentiate among clerks.

The principal stumbling block to prediction of executive performance is a lack of criteria of successful executive performance. To correct this void, the Educational Testing Service in its noteworthy Executive Project is attempting to determine and describe criteria of successful executive performance as a prelude to the development of better means for selecting executives. Practically any occupation can be cited as an example, but the generalized executive or organizational leader is the most obvious example of the criterion void.

Personality Measurement. Personality measurement has long been the "bugaboo" of psychometrics. To lick this problem, according to Wallace, "we must get away from the self-reporting and projective techniques that have been used in the past." Factor analysis made possible by new electronic devices may permit the development of reliable, unfakable, and valid personality measurement devices. Cattell at the University of Illinois and Guilford at the University of Southern California think they have the answer to personality aptitude measurement. For example, Cattell declares confidently that "the 16 Personality Questionnaire, on which we have already measured about 40 different occupations, is relatively unfakable. I would challenge any executive to try to produce a given profile deliberately."

Complex Positions. There will probably continue to be effort toward the development of unitary factor tests which can be used for such complex positions as supervisor and manager. The use of measures of personality characteristics, interests, and basic abilities will lead to the development of optimum profiles for selection purposes. Philip R. Merrifield points out that the complexity of most higher level positions demands a multidimensional approach—a profile predictor. Of course, the correlation of any single factor test with a criterion will be low, but a group of such tests could lead to a significantly high multiple correlation. Even so, the higher and the more complex the posi-

Editor's Note

The object of the "Research and Results" department is to report, interpret, and comment on trends and developments in personnel research. As editor of this department, I will endeavor to achieve this objective not only through my own writing, but also by inviting "guest editors" to contribute material from time to time. As a prelude to the discussion in this particular issue, I sought opinions from several experts in the testing field.

In the course of reporting and commenting on research, I recognize that some readers may not fully agree with the interpretations or conclusions which I draw from my observations. Elsewhere in this issue, the editor of *Public Personnel Review* has editorialized on the desirability of broadening and deepening the channels of two-way communication between editor and reader. I heartily concur in this. If any readers of this department are moved to "take pen in hand" and give me the benefit of their reactions, I will welcome hearing from them. Such "letters to the editor" may, on occasion, provide the substance for future material in these columns.

CECIL E. GOODE

tion, the more use will have to be made of good judgment or "horse sense."

Summary

We are making progress in the personnel testing art but not enough considering the millions of tests that have been produced and used. The public service, because of its necessary reliance on testing as a major component of the merit system, has at least as much at stake as private industry in sharpening the tools of employment testing.

New statistical means largely stemming from the advent of the radically new electronic data processing machines promise new breakthroughs in personnel testing. These means will make possible the isolation of pure factors, the much easier development of norms, and the relation of results to criteria.

But, above all, some imaginative attention must be given to criteria—what is desirable job performance, and then how to predict who will perform successfully. Even with a greatly improved test technology, we must face the fact that tests after all are just crutches or aids to judgment. They can never substitute for it.

Two Industrial Giants View Civil Service Employment . . .

"The American businessman who closes his desk in industry and undertakes responsibility in the executive branch of the federal government enters a new world. He learns forthwith much about business that is new to him . . . he finds that government is team play, and that he is dealing not with subordinates but with equals, men as patriotic and as anxious to do the right thing as he is. And he develops respect and affection for the career people, who often bear great responsibility at levels of compensation which he would never have tolerated in his company."—Clarence Randall, noted industrialist and now special consultant to President Eisenhower on foreign economic policy, in a statement from the *Saturday Review*.

"I wish that the old stereotype of the 'civil service jobholder' could be destroyed forever. It conjures up a picture of a man desperately clutching the life raft of security while waiting for the rescue ship of retirement. I am fortunate. I happen to know how false the picture is . . . it takes more than mere competence to draw up a budget or conduct atomic research or direct a Bureau of Engraving or administer the Food and Drug Act. It takes a high level of ability, and the kind of ability found in these offices is found also in thousands of other career people throughout the civil service."—From a banquet speech by the late John S. Coleman who was president of Burroughs Corporation and a past president of the U.S. Chamber of Commerce.

around the personnel world

• ETHIOPIA

Advances in Administration.

Important developments in the Imperial Ethiopian Institute of Public Administration include assistance of its staff in the preparation of a scheme for pensions for Civil Servants, in the organizing and processing of the proposed general population census to be held for the first time in 1960, and in the planning of a national training center for government servants (including those of public corporations, municipalities, and provinces) in close association with the Institute. (Excerpt from the *International Review of Administrative Sciences,* Vol. XXIV, No. 1, 1958.)

• GUAM

Utilization of Retired Personnel.

The application of the income tax laws of the United States to Guam as a separate territorial tax and the development of an adequate tax administration created a serious personnel problem in the form of lack of qualified personnel. Very few were available on Guam.

Early in 1956 decision was made to endeavor to interest retired income tax auditors who had retired or were about to retire from the United States Internal Revenue Service. By continued publicity, this program so far has succeeded in bringing 11 such to Guam. Two have terminated their contracts after fufilling them, and one has died.

Uniquely Valuable

The program has been uniquely valuable in that it has enabled Guam to secure individuals who are well experienced in tax work, need only a short orientation period in local procedures, customs, etc., and can aid in the tax education of the local populace. For the employee, it has opened up travel opportunities not otherwise available and has afforded a chance to be of service under pleasant climatic and working conditions for older people. (As reported by Charles M. Earl, Jr., Chief, Staff Services Division, Department of Labor and Personnel, Guam.)

• CENTRAL AMERICA

Public Administration School.

ESAPAC (Escuela Superior de Administracion Publica America Central) was founded as a joint undertaking of the United Nations Technical Assistance Administration and the five republics of Costa Rica, El Salvador, Guatemala, Honduras, and Nicaragua. It is based on the principle that economic development cannot become a fact without an efficient civil service.

The school gives two 5-month courses a year to students selected and nominated by

their respective governments, who already occupy executive posts, or who show promise of ultimate development. Thus far, 252 executives have been trained in the 10 courses given between January, 1954, and June, 1958.

Selection of Students

The students are chosen by national selection boards with the assistance of ESAPAC teachers who sit with the boards as technical advisors. Selections are made long enough in advance so that the students are able to perform some preliminary studies and research at home; they spend the 6 months following the course in a period of controlled experience during which they are expected to apply in a practical manner what they learned during the lecture period.

Practical Conclusions Expected

The courses are divided into two series. The first is a general course on administration designed to train all-round executives. In addition, each student is expected to write a thesis of 80 to 100 pages on a subject related to public administration and preferably one concerning his own sphere of activity; the conclusions of the thesis should include practical steps aimed at improving the organization in which the student is engaged. The second series contains basically the same courses as the first but puts particular emphasis on one branch or another of the public service.

School at a Crossroads

Having fulfilled its first objective of creating a nucleus of high-level administrators, the school today is at a crossroads in the sense that plans are being made to reorient the courses to meet the changing requirements.

There is now a greater need for more specialized courses, refresher courses, and seminars where specific subjects will be discussed. These will be shorter than the regular courses and planned to meet particular conditions such as the 1960 census, the establishment of civil service and organization and methods units, and public relations programs.

The school would continue to give general courses on public administration to adhere to the original policy of developing executives for Central American public administration bodies but planned on a basis of one course a year instead of two.

An international flavor has been supplied by teachers coming from Canada, France, Mexico, the United States, Venezuela, Chile, Mexico, the Netherlands, Spain, and Uruguay, in addition to the Central American teachers. (Information supplied by E. P. Laberge, ESAPAC, San Jose, Costa Rica.)

• VIET NAM

Establishing a National Police Academy.

Upon my arrival in Saigon on September 3, 1955, I began working with Gil Shelby on the various aspects of training, especially on the project of establishing a National Police Academy.

The National Police Academy was originally set up to accommodate 120 students. The first class was comprised of 124 students who were selected by an intelligence test consisting of 140 multiple choice questions devised by Dr. Frederic Wickert, In-Service Training Specialist, and myself, with the aid of several teachers from the Vietnamese Department of Education. The examination was purposely made for 7th grade level of education and was used on students at that grade level before all of the kinks in the examination were ironed out.

Multiple-Choice Comes to Viet Nam

The weeding out process by use of this examination was necessary as some of the patrolmen could barely read or write, and the school curriculum was geared to students

having at least a 7th grade education. To our knowledge, this was the first time multiple-choice questions were used in Viet Nam.

During the almost 2 years of Academy operation, we have constantly reviewed the curriculum, deleting where feasible and adding where necessary so that, at the present time, instead of a 6-week course, as originally planned, the Academy course consists of 9 weeks of intensive basic training. All students are members of police departments of Viet Nam, and some have as many as 5 years of police experience. Their lack of training, however, necessitated the use of a basic police course.

Top Students Become Teachers

Because of the dearth of police instructors throughout Viet Nam, especially persons who would have good teaching techniques, we at the Academy devised a partial solution to the problem. Weekly examinations are given the students and a final examination given at the completion of the course. Letters are sent to the Chiefs of Police regarding those men who place in the top quarter of the class, suggesting that they be permitted to operate small schools in their respective departments and thus disseminate the knowledge gained at the Police Academy. This has worked very successfully.

The Director of the Academy sends a letter to each Chief of Police who has had personnel in class, and this letter not only gives information regarding the students' weekly and final examination marks, but also gives pertinent information regarding the student's personality, leadership ability, conduct, public speaking ability, etc. From letters received and remarks, this information has been used widely in selection of patrolmen for new assignments. (Adapted from a report by Charles F. Sloane, Police Advisor, Michigan State University, East Lansing, Michigan in *The Police Chief*, March, 1958.)

• GREAT BRITAIN

Applicants May Choose Method of Competition.

In 1944, when plans were being made for the resumption of recruitment to the administrative class of the civil service after the war, it was decided to make an important change in the pre-war system.

The well-tried method of examination, by testing a candidate's academic studies through a series of written papers, and his personality by a single interview before a board (now to be known as Method I), was to continue; but candidates who were at least of Second Class Honours standard could choose instead to compete by a new and shorter method (Method II) based on interview, record, and a few written tests of a general character. Candidates could compete by either method or both.

Shortly afterwards, the Civil Service Commissioners, with the approval of the Treasury, decided that the board interview under Method II should be preceded by an elaborate series of tests and interviews conducted by the Civil Service Selection Board (C.S.S.B.), an adaptation of the wartime W.O.S.B., which was to form part of the Commissioners' Department. The report of C.S.S.B. on each candidate would be available to the Final Selection Board, meeting under the chairmanship of the First Civil Service Commissioner.

The new system was experimental and was to be reviewed after 10 years. The present report gives the results of that review, together with the government's decision.

Does It Work?

It is gratifying to learn that the Commissioners have recommended, and the government, "on the evidence so far available," has agreed, that the administrative class should continue to be recruited by both methods. Writing as one who has sat regularly (though not invariably) on both the Final Boards (the Final Interview Board, or F.I.B., under Method I, and the Final Selection Board, or F.S.B., under Method II), I wholeheartedly endorse this conclusion.

When normal recruitment to the administrative class was resumed in 1948, Method II was still a novelty (it had been used for testing reconstruction candidates since 1945, but not, of course, as an alternative to Method I), and it was felt prudent to limit the proportion of vacancies to be filled by it to 25 per cent of the total number offered in the open competition, but since 1952 the proportion to be filled in this way has been increased to about 50 per cent, and this practice is now confirmed by the government statement. (Excerpts from a review by Sir Percival Waterfield in *Public Administration,* Spring, 1958.)

• THE PHILIPPINES

Civil Service Speakers' Bureau To Be Formed.

The Bureau of Civil Service, as a central training office, has started the ball rolling for the organization of a Speakers' Bureau. This will be composed of people who are specialists in their own lines and who can act as resource persons in training programs.

A list of such persons is being prepared by the BCS with the assistance of training officers and agencies concerned with in-service training. Training officers of departments, bureaus, offices, and agencies of the government have been asked to furnish the BCS with a list of resource persons who have participated in their training programs and who were found to be effective speakers. The names submitted will be incorporated in the general list which the BCS is planning to put out. (From *The Civil Service Reporter,* January, 1958.)

• TURKEY

Recruitment for the Provincial Service.

The Turkish Government recruits its personnel for major administrative positions in provincial government from among the graduates of the faculties of Political Sciences and of Law. Moreover, because of its scholarship system, which operates both at the public school level and the university level, the Turkish government has been able to secure personnel who come from a wide diversity of backgrounds.

. . . .

The largest number (of governors and sub-provincial governors) come from fathers who were middle or higher civil servants. However, there is an interesting representation of the sons of lower-level civil servants, small merchants, and farmers. Compared with the French civil service, the Turkish provincial service tends to offer more opportunity to the average Turkish youth who may live anywhere within the boundaries of Turkey, coming from virtually any social origin.

Less Privileged Are More Sympathetic

It is quite clear that many of these provincial officials have come from rural and lower class backgrounds which would make them sympathetic to the problems of all the classes which compose Turkish society. They have successfully moved from a lower social class

to a higher class and this social mobility is considered an excellent characteristic of the Turkish administrative system. The Turkish national scholarship system, which has drawn youths from all areas and all social classes, may be credited with making this possible, and adding this very real leavening influence to the growth of any permanent upper class which would govern and rule the county.

. . . .

The development of a provincial service in an underdeveloped country is a difficult task. It requires that young men of university education, frequently from the large urban centers, be required to spend their lives in the rural areas. They are forced to give up all the advantages of a life in the city, for a lean, hard existence under difficult circumstances. They can in some ways be compared to a colonial service whose members have gone far afield living under real hardship conditions for the interests of the mother-country.

Because of Turkey's scholarship system which has drawn young men from the provinces, it has been less difficult to get them to return to the provinces for service.

Aid to Underdeveloped Countries

For other underdeveloped countries the lessons are in the adoption of:

A national and university scholarship system

A pre-entry program which is integrated in the university system, and which meets the needs of the public service

A post-entry training program to train the individual more specifically for the post he will presently hold and eventually aspire to

Promotional opportunities which offer opportunity for advancement and so will maintain high morale

A salary schedule and prestige rating which will help to overcome the adversity and hardship in the provinces.

Provincial administration is difficult and must be dealt with separately if one aspires to develop a career service in the field. It calls for greater sacrifice and must offer greater advantages to its entrants. Turkey has had many years of experience and has come far in its development of a career service. It has some distance still to go. However, the preceding information may be useful for other countries just starting out on this road and with a much longer way, therefore, to go. (From an article by Prof. Dr. Albert Gorvine and Doc. Dr. Arif Payaslioglu in *International Review of Administrative Sciences,* No. 4, 1957.)

• SWEDEN

The Social Background of the Swedish Civil Service.

It is interesting to examine the social background of the higher civil servants and to determine whether the democratization of the Swedish Parliament and Cabinet has been accompanied by a like democratization in the recruitment of its higher administrative personnel.

A study has been made which covers the period from 1917 to 1947 and includes, in particular, university graduates in government departments, central administrative boards, and some provincial administrations. Concerning the problem of finding a suitable

method of classification according to social origin, two alternative differentiating principles can be used.

Voters Grouped in Three Classes

The first is classification according to paternal occupation, eight different categories being used. This differentiation can be characterized as a balance between a purely economic and a purely social estimate of the rank and relationship of the different vocational groups and is the method frequently used in studies of this kind. The other basis for classification is that followed in the official Swedish election statistics, which groups voters in three social classes.

Class I includes persons in occupations which normally necessitate a university degree, officers in the armed forces, persons holding higher administrative positions, members of boards of directors, and the like.

Social Class II is the "middle class" and comprises, among others, farm owners, elementary-school teachers, small-scale businessmen, the lower grades of civil servants, white-collar workers, and those craftsmen who are in business for themselves. Social Class III, finally, includes workmen in industry, the crafts, and agriculture, etc.

The official statistical reports show that the three social classes have remained relatively unchanged during the period studied. About 5 per cent of the population of Sweden belongs to Class I, 40 per cent to Class II, and 55 per cent to Class III.

Several interesting tendencies become apparent through a study of the over-all figures.

Class I Decreasing in Importance

Class I has decreased in importance as a source of recruitment, while Class II and, to some extent, even Class III have become more significant . . . this tendency is not so extensive that a change in the basic structure of the Swedish bureaucracy can be said to have taken place. There is still a narrow social foundation from which the majority of appointments are made. As late as in 1947, some 52 per cent of higher officials came from Class I.

. . . the number of officials whose fathers were university graduates or farmers is constantly diminishing, while the number of those coming from the homes of lower civil servants has increased most. Sons of craftsmen and workers have doubled their percentage, but, in spite of this, they constituted not more than 10 per cent of the total in 1947.

. . . .

Social Exclusiveness in Recruitment

Thus, changes in social recruitment occur quite slowly and seem to be relatively limited. There still remains much of the former social exclusiveness in recruitment for the civil service.

In the 1940's and even after the Second World War, the social structure of the Swedish bureaucracy closely resembled that which predominated before the acceptance of democracy and the parliamentary system. One of the main reasons is that higher government positions generally require a university education. Students from Social Class III, which includes over half the population of Sweden, have never constituted more than 10 per cent of the combined university enrollment. (From "The Recruitment of Civil Servants in the Swedish Administration" in the *International Review of Administrative Sciences*, No. 4, 1957.)

personnel opinions

IMPORTANT QUESTIONS of personnel policy and practice seldom yield "cut-and-dried" answers. The editors have posed the question below to several persons representing different points of view to give readers guidelines in formulating their own policies.

THE QUESTION

"To what extent, if any, should the central personnel agency seek participation by officials of operating departments in the selection process for (a) Entrance examinations, and (b) Promotional examinations?"

Says KELVIN D. SHARP . . .

Assistant Executive Officer
State Personnel Board, Sacramento.

The question would appear to be obvious and to require obvious answers. Before dismissing it so lightly, however, it may be well to ask whether personnel administrators have actually sought out and exhausted the possibilities of participation by operating agencies. Since we are discussing selection processes for open and promotional examinations, consider the following:

In the field of recruitment, what are the agency's vacancies? What turnover does it expect during the coming year? Did the last examination produce satisfactory candidates? How long may the list be expected to last? Does the education and experience pattern need changing? What about publicity? Would newspaper advertising help? Should schools or professional societies be contacted? Can an agency representative visit the schools? Would a recruiting brochure help? What aspects of agency service should be emphasized? What is the best timing for the recruiting campaign? Can the agency pay all the costs—part of the cost of a recruiting campaign? Does the agency have a skilled writer to produce copy for advertising and recruiting brochures?

In the field of the written examination, has the operating agency reviewed the last examination given? What changes should be made? Are the segments weighted correctly? Is the available examination material current? Can the agency designate a qualified person to bring it up to date? Can they suggest outside experts who may be consulted? Will the agency assist in making contacts? What about scoring essay questions or problems? Will the agency do it or suggest persons qualified to do it? Would "continuous" tests help? Can they administer the tests in their office? Can they furnish proctors? Can they score the tests? Set up their own lists?

Are oral interviews to be given supplementing the written? Is an oral really necessary? If so, is the written exam necessary? What weights are to be assigned them? How about an agency representative in the oral? Why not? Can the agency conduct the entire oral without central agency representation? Who would make qualified public representatives on oral boards? How about trying group orals?

What about promotional examinations? Can the agency furnish the same kind of assistance in promotional examinations as in open? Is there really any occasion for less participation by the agency in promotional examinations? Why? Can the role of the agency be increased? Should more weight be given performance reports by the agency in promotional exams? How about rating the employees' promotional potentials? Can agency supervisory committees be formed to do this?

Of a more general nature, can operating agencies suggest new examining techniques? Methods of administration? Services they can furnish? Services the central personnel agency can furnish? What advance planning is desirable in the entire field of selection?

As personnel administrators, we may be tempted to answer these questions ourselves, and be satisfied with our own answers. If we do, we are in error. If we really believe in participation, we will discuss these questions with operating agencies and seek their answers, not only in furnishing statistical facts but in furnishing their honest appraisal and evaluation of what we are now doing, and what we may do to improve what we are now doing. This is the essence of agency participation.

Acknowledgment should be made of varying degrees of development and "sophistication" in the programs of different personnel agencies. What is possible in one agency may not always be possible in another. Even so, the attitude toward participation is probably more important than the subject matter for participation. Regardless of the limitations imposed by the environment, there are innumerable avenues for seeking agency participation and improving the status quo. As these are explored, they may become the basis for removing some of the limitations which currently exist.

Participation in the area of selection does not necessarily imply delegation; neither does it imply abdication of central agency responsibilities and obligations. It does imply sharing the selection problem with the operating department to the end of enabling the central agency to contribute more effectively to department programs. Operating agency participation may not insure the success of the selection program, but the lack of it will almost certainly insure its failure.

Says NORMAN J. POWELL . . .

Professor of Government,
City College of New York.

Three plausible assumptions are germane: (1) Honesty in the selection of government personnel is an essential but insufficient virtue. Now that public costs are soaring to the economic sky, and governmental activities permeate every important sector of the community and reach out to determine the survival and security of all of us, the quality of the public servant has become crucial. (2) Authority and responsibility for examinations must be shared between the central personnel and operating agencies so that the special expertise, areas of knowledge, and biases of both can be optimally combined. A merit system must be preserved inviolate; it must also seek creatively to use the skills and interests of the relevant people in the central and operating agencies. (3) The technical and procedural details of the central-operating agency cooperative relation must be conditioned by the expectations and pressures of the major variables and groups in the jurisdiction. Included are such factors as the age, civil service legislative history and size of the jurisdiction, the extent of unionization of public employees, the character and emphases of the local press and other communications media, the nature and leadership of civic groups in the community, the interests and talents of the top political leaders, the organization, competencies and concerns of personnel men and general administrators in the locality and the extent to which full-bodied personnel programs have been recognized and developed.

In any case, in civil service examinations as in governmental personnel management and in public administration generally, rules and agreements that are spelled out on sheets of paper signify far less than the preconceptions and attitudes of the personnel men, administrators, politicians, and others for initiating, building, and controlling examinations or other personnel programs.

Exemplifying an application of assumptions such as the foregoing in one jurisdiction is the recent approval by the New York City Civil Service Commission of specific ideas limning the relationship of operating agencies to the examining process: (1) The central personnel agency retains decision-making power in all matters concerning examinations. At the same time, the line agency is given adequate opportunity to make suggestions and to state its position about desirable examinations approaches. (2) The central personnel examiner makes consultative arrangements productive by accepting agency views where it is practicable

and desirable to do so. In principal items of disagreement, operating agency representatives are notified in advance of central personnel agency final action so that departmental requests may be renewed through direct discussion with the director of examinations. (3) Consultations include: (a) statement of duties; (b) minimum qualification; (c) subjects and weights, i.e., whether the examination shall consist of written, oral, or other types of tests, and the relative numerical value of each test in the examination; (d) scope, form, and date of examination; (e) keys for written tests especially where they are peculiar to an agency. Consultation is excluded for general open competitive and city-wide promotion tests; (4) Operating agencies are invited to comment on examinations after they have been administered.

Here is a consultative pattern that brings the operating department into a positive cooperative relationship with the central personnel agency and, at the same time, keeps the examinations questions and rating sacrosanct. It is a pattern well suited to the exigencies of the New York City personnel situation.

Elsewhere, more intimate interrelationships should be worked out. Particularly in dynamic, smaller local jurisdictions (as well as in the federal government) with effective instrumentalities of controls over the public administrator, it should be possible for the central personnel agency to set up safeguards enabling it to extend departmental participation by such means as special *ad hoc* committees with central personnel and line representatives and loan of departmental representatives to the central agency to deal with a specific examination. Such extensions may well be begun with examinations especially designed for one department, such as a promotion examination or an open competitive examination to recruit personnel used only in that department.

Says MURIEL M. MORSE . . .

Assistant General Manager,
Los Angeles City Civil Service Department.

Personnel of operating departments should be encouraged to participate in the selection process to the fullest extent compatible with (a) the purposes of the merit system, and (b) the responsibility of the central personnel agency to give good personnel service.

The first practice we have come to understand quite well. The concept of personnel as a service arm to operating management, rather than a control function, is learned by each personnel trainee from his coursework, from his supervisor, and from a few hard knocks in the field if he is a slow learner. Most agencies now pay more than lip service to the end rather than to the means of personnel administration and are seeking advice and participation from operating departments in all areas of the selection process.

Perhaps the pendulum has swung so far in this regard that we have greater need to consider the second practice, i.e., that operating departments should participate in the selection process to the fullest extent compatible with the responsibility of the central personnel agency to give good personnel service.

If we believe there is a professional aspect to our work, a body of knowledge in which we are presumed to be skilled, then we had best be sure we exercise it. We must always distinguish service from participation, yet even the question to which we are asked to address ourselves did not.

It does not meet our service responsibility merely to slough off or turn over our personnel work to the operating department. Sometimes, in the interests of trying to assure them we are not exercising any control, we tend to do just this. In the doing, we become lazy personnelists and fail to exercise the originality, the imagination, and creative requirement of our work.

Let's take some examples covering the range of activities included in the selection process.

It is highly proper to get suggestions on recruitment from management but we had best go to them first with a well-thought-out recruitment plan showing that we have given some consideration to where we might get good applicants for them. It is not performing our service responsibility if we suggest that they do the recruitment for us, write the letters, contact the magazines, place the ads, or suggest the plan.

Similarly, we fulfill properly our service responsibility if we prepare requirements, a bulletin, and test outlines for an examination and ask for departmental comment. But, are we doing our job if officials of operating departments are asked to suggest such requirements, to write the test items, or to set up a good performance test for us?

Such examples as have been cited are extreme—and obviously circumstances must dictate practices. Practices will vary widely in agency-operating department relationships depending upon the background of a particular central personnel agency and upon departmental relationships within that frame of reference.

Practices will also vary in meeting both these objectives, but my plea is this—if there is a field of knowledge in personnel work, then we are responsible for devising the tools, improving them, and suggesting the know-how in our field. If we merely ask operating department officials to do our job for us or rely on them for its improvement, this is not participation but abrogation on our part.

Let's broaden our concepts, indeed, in seeking their participation, but let's also sharpen our tools lest we be caught with the concept that our service to management can well be performed by those less well trained and able in the field of personnel administration than we are supposed to be.

Says WILLIAM J. VEEDER . . .

City Manager
Fort Lauderdale Civil Service Board

To the fullest extent possible, consistent with the basic premise that the personnel agency must at all times accept complete responsibility for the final results.

Everyone in the field agrees—or should—that personnel agencies are in business to provide service to operating agencies. That being so, how does this "service" concept relate to various phases of the examination process? The answer lies in the many ways that operating officials can, in fact, participate and cooperate with the personnel agency towards the common objective of obtaining the best qualified individuals available to fill vacancies.

Operating officials, by the very nature of their work, have more knowledge about classes within their organizations than the personnel agency. For example, they are apt to know: Where to find potential applicants; how to get in touch with potential applicants; how much of what kind of training and experience is necessary to do the job; what areas of knowledge should be covered in written tests; and who might best serve on oral panels.

These are but a few examples. The point is: If the personnel agency does not make full use of the knowledge and opinions of operating officials, the results will be less than the best. And perhaps equally important, the operating agency will have less than complete confidence in the personnel agency.

To be specific, some of the areas that come to mind where participation by operating officials should be sought are:

Announcements. Before announcements are issued, operating officials should participate in a review of the minimum qualifications to be advertised. Such a review sets the framework for the whole examination process, and the knowledge that operating officials have of the class involved quite possibly will have a bearing on: Age limits; training and experience to be called for; the types of tests to be used; the weights assigned to various tests; how much time should be allowed before the closing date; and whether the vacancy should be announced as open competitive or promotional.

Recruitment. There is much that operating personnel can do towards the end of obtaining the greatest possible number of applicants. If professional and technical personnel are being sought they can do such things as: Suggest appropriate publications to advertise in; contact qualified individuals and encourage them to apply; make recruiting visits to colleges and universities; and make the vacancies known to their professional organizations.

For classes more apt to be dependent on the local labor market they can: Encourage others in their organizations to make the vacancies known throughout the community; work with the press to play up the need for applicants; help prepare mailing lists of or-

ganizations and individuals who should receive copies of the announcements; distribute announcements and provide information at their offices; give talks to groups that may include potential applicants; and place showcards on their departmental vehicles calling attention to the vacancies.

Selection. Operating personnel can offer constructive assistance that will do much to assure the reliability of the actual testing devices used. This assistance might take the form of

—reviewing and assisting in making up training and experience rating scales
—indicating those areas of knowledge that should be included as well as those that should be emphasized on the written tests
—suggesting subject matter specialists who might be used to prepare test items
—serving on oral boards for open competitive examinations and suggesting outside authorities who might serve on oral boards for certain promotional examinations
—suggesting source material the personnel agency might use in preparing test items
—pointing out deficiencies in previous tests for the same classes
—contacting former employers for information that might not be as readily available to the personnel agency
—assisting in the administration of physical agility tests, drivers tests, and the like.

In these and other ways the knowledge, skills and abilities of operating personnel should be utilized by the personnel agency. To seek and encourage such participation does not indicate inadequacy or lack of competency. Rather, it is a positive approach to further the service function of the personnel agency. In effect it results in the establishment of a working partnership.

Each One Teach One . . .

"And then there's another thing I hope will happen. A million American soldiers are stationed abroad. Why don't we start American troops who are in foreign lands teaching illiterates?

"Teach the servicemen how to use these books—they could learn in a week easily. They are now learning foreign languages.

"Then in their leisure hours have them put a book under their arm and go down the streets and say to somebody, 'Would you like to learn to read?' These illiterate people would all go crazy with delight. It's wonderful to teach people because they are so grateful."—*The Atlantic,* October, 1957, from an interview with Dr. Frank Laubach of "Each One Teach One" fame.

the bookshelf

History of the United States Civil Service. By Paul P. Van Riper. Row, Peterson and Company, Evanston, Illinois, 1958. 558 pp. $7.50.

Reviewed by

JOHN A. WATTS

Director of Civilian Personnel
Department of the Air Force

This book is a comprehensive history of the federal civil service from the birth of the Republic in 1789 to the issuance of the Executive Order of 4 March, 1958, establishing the Career Executive Board. Primarily, it covers the civil service in the executive branch but also includes side-light references to the civil service employments of the legislative and judicial branches as well as to the military services.

The author brought excellent academic training re-enforced with experience in both the academic and public service worlds to this job. It is quite obvious that he supplemented this background with extensive study and research and keen, analytical thinking. One can state without question that this is the only such comprehensive history of the federal civil service to be found in one volume. It is much more than a history alone for it not only records the facts in the history of the civil service but orients them within the political, social, and economic environment of the times which gave them birth.

Let's look first at the historical facts. This volume through its excellent index will permit any student or practitioner quickly to trace the history of unionism in the public service, position classification in the public service, or any one of the other functions or characteristics of a civil service. Hence, it becomes an invaluable handbook. The facts are here and they are easy to find.

Over and above being a historical record, one is forced to admire the skill with which such factual data have been fitted into place in an over-all picture of the American scene. Not only does the author supply the facts on unions or veterans preference in the public service on any other related subject, but he also gives you an orientation for these developments in the more basic political, social, and economic history.

After some 530 well-written pages of detailed history of the civil service, the author provides a recapitulation of his book in the last chapter which is entitled "Personnel Is Power—A Theory of Governmental Reform." This chapter is self-contained. It might be considered the author's own abridgement of his text. So far as your reviewer is concerned, it is the best single brief treatment of the federal civil service that he has read in over 20 years of public personnel experience. In many ways it is a classic and the reviewer would like to see it read far and wide.

The author's historic approach and analysis is most interesting. Permit me to outline a bit of it. He covers the early history of the civil service from 1789 to 1829 in one chapter entitled "Bureaucratic Beginnings." He points out the importance that competence and efficiency played in this period and observes that within these two criteria our early Presidents were careful to select individuals who thought as they did and who represented the American upper classes.

He then leads us into the beginning of Andrew Jackson's administration with the very interesting labeling of the introduction of the spoils system as "The First Reform." He points out that since the public service operates within its political, social, and economic environment, it is representative of those forces. To the Jacksonians, therefore, the spoils system was the way to reform the public service to make it representative.

This period carries us through 1865. Soon after this date, our author vividly portrays the forces in our basic society that gave rise to the civil service reform movement that led to the Pendleton Act of 1893.

This reform he labels the "Second Reform" and again does a fine job in orienting it within the basic trends in American political, social, and economic history. He points out that this was a "moral" reform, a search for the "good political man."

As the next stage in the development of the civil service, he outlines the increasing importance of the concepts of economy and efficiency in American industry and in the public service. All these developments bring us up to World War I which our author considers to be a turning point not only in the history of the civil service but also in American attitudes towards the government as possibly "a positive good" instead of a necessary evil. We are still in this broad phase in our author's analysis.

It is concerning the present that our author makes his most stimulating analyses and states some challenging problems. He deplores those characteristics of the civil service that have emphasized control, centralization, form, and procedure over decentralization and substance. In a very challenging paragraph he has stated:

> It would seem, therefore, that the Pendleton Act has carried with it the seeds of its own potential destruction. As the vehicle for a useful and efficient administrative device it will soon be obsolete, even a barrier to progress, if action along the lines suggested above is not taken soon. Like the spoils system it replaced, the civil service law of 1883 has, after 75 years, become a conservative institution.
>
> Now it is protective, not of business, property, and acquisitive economics, as the spoils system had been, but of outdated controls, restrictive and costly procedures, and another species of property right, this time relating to public office.

Many will not necessarily agree with this pessimistic observation. However, they will be impressed with the logical processes through which the author reaches it and all will be challenged by the basic problems underlying it. The author does suggest that a way out of the centralized procedural controls may be found under two conditions:

> (a) When employees possess the civil rights which permit them to argue their own case with management on something like equal terms, and (b) when management is aware of both the deep human desire for individual expression and the utility of creativeness on the part of all employees.

This review is so condensed that it does not do full justice to the excellent job done in the book. It is hoped, however, that it will stimulate readers to familiarize themselves first hand with Paul Van Riper's significant contribution to the literature of personnel work.

Personnel Research Frontiers. By Cecil E. Goode. Public Personnel Association, Chicago, Illinois, 1958. 176 pp. $3.50 list price; $2.50 to PPA members.

Reviewed by

HAROLD GUETZKOW
Professor of Political Science, Psychology, and Sociology
Northwestern University

Cecil E. Goode's astonishingly complete survey of current personnel research activity reveals a reservoir of knowledge quite untapped by public personnel workers. In a miniature side study Goode asked some 21 personnel practitioners to list research findings they have used within their own work and to tell of researches of significance with which they were acquainted. He found that only about a quarter of the listings were actually research—most were information pieces and descriptions of management programs. He found that of the research items listed only 16% were considered as outstanding by the 185 social scientists interviewed by Goode for his main survey. Little wonder that his final recommendations largely center on measures which would increase the utilization of "synthesized social science knowledge" by personnel practitioners.

In this "review of personnel research activities and facilities," the author made a thorough exploration of the research frontiers. He names organizations and describes their research programs in very concrete terms. He also provides an excellent, annotated bibliography for orientation of the newcomer. He tantalizes his readers with concrete findings, so that they will search out the sources for more understanding.

For example, he reports the findings of the Group Effectiveness Laboratory at the University of Illinois on the age-old adage about the maintenance of social distance between leader and subordinates. If you are concerned with problems in supervision, can you resist seeking out more information about the Illinois studies which "support the thesis that these customs increase effectiveness not so much because men will not fol-

low a leader with whom they are too familiar, but rather because a leader who is too close to his men might find it more difficult to reach decisions which are uninfluenced by his feelings about the men (p. 55)?"

Although his longest chapter is devoted to the substance of contemporary research, Goode has not integrated or synthesized the knowledge itself. Perhaps such inventories of knowledge, analogous to the outstanding compilations of the Foundation for Research on Human Behavior* or Psychological Service of Pittsburgh,† might be one of the first projects of a "Public Personnel Research Division," should our PPA accept Goode's recommendation No. 6. *Personnel Research Frontiers,* however, is a mine of reference about current research of complete relevance to practicing personnel officials.

The author is unwilling to accept the popular notion that personnel research findings, no matter what their context, can be generalized from industry to government. He also is keenly aware that when one engineers basic knowledge into applied forms, much tailoring to individual situations must be done to make the knowledge useful.

Hence, his grave concern that such "scanty attention" is given to personnel research in government, at either the federal or at the state and local levels. But it is not for want of ideas from government people, as Glenn Stahl's designs for research—which are reported in some detail (pp. 108-114)—demonstrate.

His analysis of the reasons for this dearth of activity within government agencies (except the military) give little hope for effecting change from within. It seems clear that we must take the initiative ourselves, through our current, extra-agency public personnel organizations by forming research utilization divisions. Perhaps then we'll have bases for organization of a cross-government-and-industry national Personnel Research Council which is Goode's chief recommendation.

Let not my strong commendation of *Personnel Research Frontiers* indicate that I am in full agreement. Two conclusions seemed especially troublesome.

* Likert, R., and Hayes, S. P., Jr., *Some Applications of Behavioural Research.* New York: UNESCO Publications Center, 1958. Pp. 333.

† Herzberg, F., Mausner, B., Peterson, R. O., and Capwell, Dora F., *Job Attitudes: Review of Research and Opinion,* Pittsburgh: Psychological Service of Pittsburgh, 1957. Pp. 279.

Have Goode and his advisory committee made a basic error in failing to include in the study a survey of the practitioners, if there was desire to devote a whole chapter to "Personnel Research Needs of the Future?" By limiting his survey to the researchers, it is not surprising he finds "that respondents generally suggested research for the future that reflects what they or others are already doing (p. 107)."

Because of the visibility of larger research units, has Goode been misled in his conclusion "that organized or institutional research is much more effective than is the unorganized, informal variety (p. 30)?"

Why is there no appendix listing brilliant, lone-wolf researchers to provide comparison with his Appendix 4 on "Personnel Research Facilities That Cooperated in the Survey?"

All in all, this report is very well done. It is an invaluable guide to the personnel practitioners who want to ground their operations in more solid research. In providing funds for this comprehensive review, the Ford Foundation has rendered once again invaluable service to those needing the social sciences as a base for sounder practical work.

Now, will members of the Public Personnel Association and the Society for Personnel Administration—along with government executives in the American Society for Public Administration—provide the leadership whereby Goode's six recommendations may be implemented?

Police Personnel Management. By A. C. Germann. Charles C. Thomas, Publisher, 301-327 East Lawrence Avenue, Springfield, Illinois, 1958. 251 pp. $6.75.

Reviewed by

WAYNE L. HIGBEE
Personnel Director,
City of Santa Monica

Professionalization of the police service has become one of the major objectives of most police practitioners. This undertaking is a complex one with many facets. Professor Germann attempts to provide law enforcement administrators with a manual to help them achieve this objective. He maintains that of the many things required to improve the efficiency and prestige of

the police service, attention to personnel management is an absolute essential.

These questions are asked:

"How do we provide effective police service with limited personnel?"
"How do we select the most qualified?"
"How do we develop our personnel to full potentiality?"
"How do we provide motivation?"
"How do we acquire effective compensation?"
"How do we control personnel to prevent recurrences of those less salutary happenings, the history of which hangs as a millstone about the throat of today's officer?"
"How do we eliminate the incompetent and immoral?"
"How do we regain loss of public confidence?"

To answer these questions, the author has carefully organized a frame of reference within which he discusses selection, payment, development, regulation, and motivation. He places the responsibility for effective personnel management directly upon the administrator, and challenges him to think and act in a progressive manner and to put into practice his expressed attitudes concerning modern police administration.

The stated goal of selection is a worthy one: to obtain and appoint the man of potential, the man of character, integrity, ability, and intelligence, and to not pass or promote any other individual. As a guide to help achieve this goal, recruitment and selection procedures are listed in voluminous detail. A department with no current formal selection procedure might well be overwhelmed by the proposed task. A more experienced department will have learned streamlined methods to achieve the desired result without becoming entangled in minutiae.

As a base for developing a sound compensation plan, the author reviews the principles of position classification. In discussing compensation, direct pay is differentiated from extra pay, indirect pay, and fringe benefits. Examples of assignments worthy of consideration for extra pay are presented and discussed. While the author admits some of these practices are controversial, he places the weight of his opinion on one side and does not always present the opposing point of view, or even explore some of the alternatives. Broad unsupported generalizations are presented together with contradictory and ambiguous statements. In the area of salary administration, the author demonstrates naivete and a lack of understanding of the principles and problems of salary administration.

Both vocational training, emphasizing skills and techniques, and managerial training, emphasizing administration, are proposed as progressive steps in developing a more efficient police service. The expansion and present scope of preservice training and in-service training are illustrated by a comprehensive listing of all of the colleges and universities in the United States offering courses and/or giving degrees in the field of police science.

Regulatory devices necessary for effective police personnel management must be tailored to fit the organization which it serves. The police administrator regardless of the size of the jurisdiction needs clear-cut personnel law which will set basic policy, and yet allow flexibility; formalized personnel policies and procedures; deployment which will maximize the utilization of sworn and civilian personnel; sound disciplinary machinery; an objective and carefully planned service rating scheme; and personnel records sufficient to guarantee full control and development of personnel.

Professor Germann has recognized the importance of motivation by reviewing the factors affecting employee morale. He emphasizes that employee relations resulting in a higher level of performance act as a cohesive agent in cementing the organizational body. Communications upward, downward, and horizontally must be provided for and the entire force continually informed of objectives and policies. A sound ethical philosophy is necessary for proper motivation and professionalization. In summary, the author indicts the police service for its failure to upgrade itself, particularly in the area of professional conduct.

The author has included a comprehensive bibliography and has made full use of it throughout the text. There is also a 100-item checklist for the self-evaluation of the personnel management function of any law enforcement organization. While this checklist is comprehensive, evidences of inadequate editing to eliminate inaccuracies and ambiguities, and lack of objectivity, detract from its value.

The objectives of the book are excellent. The reader should take a broad overview of what the author is attempting to accomplish and use this as a guide to better police personnel management rather than as a manual of specific instructions.

1958 PPA Book Reviewers

The following members of the Public Personnel Association have accepted the editor's invitation to serve as book reviewers for *Public Personnel Review* during 1958.

Harry Albert, Assistant Personnel Director, San Francisco City and County Civil Service Commission, San Francisco, California

Paul W. Bigbee, Chief, Personnel Division, Pan American Union, Washington, D. C.

Earl R. Chambers, Personnel Director, St. Louis County, Missouri, Civil Service Commission, Clayton, Missouri

Donald E. Dickason, Director, Office of Nonacademic Personnel, University of Illinois, Urbana, Illinois

Martin B. Dworkis, Professor of Public Administration, Graduate School of Public Administration and Social Service, New York University, New York, New York

Robert Fisher, Personnel Director, Personnel Commission of Los Angeles City Schools, Los Angeles, California

Charles S. Gardiner, Director, Texas Merit System Council, Austin, Texas

Wayne L. Higbee, Personnel Director, City of Santa Monica, California

Lloyd Hunt, Personnel Officer, Civil Service Commission, Chicago, Illinois

John W. Jackson, Director, Minnesota Civil Service Department, St. Paul, Minnesota

William M. McDougall, Director of Personnel, Louisiana Department of Civil Service, Baton Rouge, Louisiana

C. R. Patterson, Assistant Director of Personnel Selection, Civil Service Commission of Canada, Ottawa, Ontario, Canada

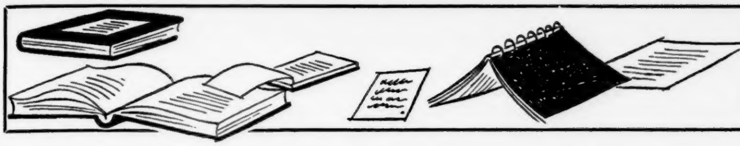
Carey Shaw, Jr., Deputy Chief, Civilian Personnel Office, Office, Chief of Staff, Department of the Army, Washington, D. C.

John A. Watts, Director of Civilian Personnel, Department of the Air Force, Washington, D. C.

The World Around Us . . .

Today, it may be said that the "illiterate" no longer exists: if a man has not learned to read with his eyes, the radio and the film succeed in giving him an understanding of the world around him. Furthermore, an enormous effort is being made in every country to extend education. This is in keeping with the spirit of former times, when cultural values were the property of every section of the community, which played its part in their elaboration.

In our time, values are once again obtaining more democratic recognition through education. Therefore, it is not enough that the elite of the different peoples understand and appreciate each other in a spirit of mutual respect. It is to the masses that this new state of mind has to be communicated.—From *Unesco Chronicle,* April, 1958.



BOOK AND PAMPHLET NOTES

Businessmen in Government. Prepared by the Harvard Business School Club of Washington, D. C., P.O. Box 5677, Washington 16, D. C., 1958. 44 pp. No price indicated.

Is there a difference between business and government know-how? What attracts businessmen to government service? What keeps them away? Do they do a good job as public administrators? For over 3 years, more than 100 alumni of the Harvard Business School worked on a voluntary basis to plan and carry out a comprehensive analysis answering these and other related questions. Written questionnaires were sent to 8,500 business executives and top career civil servants throughout the country and personal depth interviews were held with both groups. The answers add up to the fact that, unless some kind of effective centralized recruitment service is set up in Washington with good communication with, and cooperation from, the American business community, we as a nation are going to be found very much wanting.

The Outlook for Labor Costs in Local Governments. Michael T. Wermel. Industrial Relations Section, California Institute of Technology, Pasadena, California, 1958. 14 pp. $1.00.

Faced with the need to compete for qualified personnel in a persistently tight labor market and at steadily advancing compensation rates, the basic problem of municipal officials in the years to come will be that of controlling labor costs. The challenge can only be met through such processes as efficient budgeting, comprehensive operations planning, and effective administration.

You and Management. Daniel R. Davies and Robert Teviot Livingston. Harper & Brothers, 49 East 33d Street, New York 16, New York. 272 pp. $4.50.

The two authors of this book do a very satisfactory job of pulling together the common principles that apply to any type of management, whether it be in government, education, business, industry, or labor. The reader will find many practical hints that will help him decide whether he should become a manager, or, if he already operates in that capacity, he will learn how he can improve his skill as a manager. "You and Management" draws on recent human relations research conducted by companies and educational institutions and relates such research to on-the-job situations. The book is lucidly written, the style is good, and the contents are practical. Even though some of the subject matter may appear elementary to the initiated, the book deserves a place on the management library shelf of everyone trying to improve his performance as a manager.

The International Civil Service: Principles and Problems. Tien-Cheng Young. International Institute of Administrative Sciences, 205 rue Belliard, Brussels 4, Belgium, 1958. Number of pages not indicated. $5.00.

The author, deputy chief of the Bureau of Programme and Budget, UNESCO, has written this book as "helpful to the specialist and the internationally-minded general reader, and particularly to international civil servants, present and prospective; students of political science and international administration; national officials dealing with international organisations." Titles from the table of contents include International Loyalty versus National Loyalty, Political Neutrality versus Fundamental Rights, Independence versus External Pressure, International Immunities and Official Duties, Institutional Efficiency versus Geographical Distribution, Equal Pay for Equal Work, Career Service versus Temporary Appointment, Administrative Powers and Staff Rights, Staff Relations and Morale.

Community Relations. Personnel Management Series No. 12. Superintendent of Documents, U.S. Government Printing Office, Washington 25, D. C., 1958. 49 pp. $.25.

The connection between community relations and personnel management may not be readily apparent. Yet it has been widely demonstrated that good community relations contribute to economical and efficient management by aiding recruitment of better workers, reducing turnover and absenteeism, improving job satisfaction and morale, and creating better public understanding. This guide has been published to assist federal administrators in maintaining an effective work force with the aid of good community relations.

Creativity. Prepared by Deutsch and Shea, Inc. Industrial Relations News, 230 West 41st Street, New York 36, New York. 16 pp. $2.00.

Interest in creativity and its role in the success of our technology, industry, and business has increased greatly during the past several years. Deutsch and Shea, Inc., technical manpower consultants, compiled this bibliography so that those who wish to extend their knowledge of this subject will have a guide to existing literature in the field.

Stimulating the Will To Learn—Employee Training Incentives. Homer T. Rosenberger. Society for Personnel Administration, 5506 Connecticut Avenue, N.W., Washington 15, D. C., 1958. 38 pp. $1.00 list price, $.50 SPA member price.

It does not matter how elaborate a training program may be—if the employees for whom it is provided see no incentive for engaging in it, except perhaps a negative one such as loss of job for not participating, the training program will be unsuccessful. This pamphlet suggests and discusses broad types of incentives which can be created and used effectively in stimulating workers to engage enthusiastically in self-development activities and to use, on the job, their newly acquired facts, skills, and attitudes.

Job Design—Meeting the Manpower Challenge. George H. Hieronymus. Society for Personnel Administration, 5506 Connecticut Avenue, N.W., Washington 15, D. C., 1958. 42 pp. $1.00 list price, $.50 SPA member price.

This pamphlet describes a step that can be taken to use the highest skills, knowledge, and ability of American manpower. It tells how to design or change job patterns so that the scientist, the technician, or any worker can deliver his best and his most.

1957 Annual Report, United States Civil Service Commission. Superintendent of Documents, U.S. Government Printing Office, Washington 25, D. C., 1958. 206 pp. $1.00.

Quoting from this 74th Annual Report: "In the Commission, 1957 was a year devoted primarily to strengthening the fundamental operating programs. The important basic improvements in the federal personnel system achieved in recent years were consolidated and emphasis was placed on working out the necessary details to obtain a high degree of effectiveness and economy of operations." This comprehensive reference manual outlines the progress made, with many charts and tables used to illustrate the text.

Womanpower. A Statement by the National Manpower Council with Chapters by the Council Staff. Columbia University Press, 2960 Broadway, New York 27, New York, 1957. 371 pp. $5.00.

The Council's continuing studies of the nation's manpower resources focuses on the role of women in paid employment in the U.S. This study illuminates the extent to which women are indispensable to the national economy and their unique role in the provision of health, educational, and other essential services.

The Measurement and Behavior of Unemployment. A Report of the National Bureau of Economic Research, New York. Princeton University Press, Princeton, New Jersey, 1957. 605 pp. $7.50.

The prevention of mass unemployment is now universally considered a primary goal of economic policy. But to control unemployment it is necessary to understand the causes. This book seeks to remedy this lack in understanding by a comprehensive exploration of the abundant statistics that have become available in recent years.

PERSONNEL BIBLIOGRAPHY

This feature is possible through the cooperation of the U.S. Civil Service Commission. It was prepared by the staff of the Commission's Library under the direction of Mrs. Elaine Woodruff, Librarian. Selections are made on the basis of (1) general availability, (2) pertinence to the public service generally, and (3) recency of material.

Employment of the Physically Handicapped

Baker, Robert G. and others.

Adjustment to physical handicap and illness; a survey of the social psychology of physique and disability. New York, Social science research council, 1953. 440 pp. (Social science research council bulletin 55, rev. 1953)

Chapter 8, Employment of the disabled includes discussions of employer practices, studies of work records, reports of employed disabled persons, job analysis as an aid in placement, vocational rehabilitation and trends toward a solution of the employment problem.

Bridges, Clark D.

Job placement of the physically handicapped. 1st ed. New York, McGraw-Hill book company, 1946. 329 pp.

Principal theme of the book is that physical disabilities need not be a work handicap. "Successful employment of disabled persons is accomplished by appraising the abilities and limitations of workers, appraising the requirements of jobs, and matching them for the greatest possible efficiency."

Cohen, Milton.

"The way back is back to work." Systems magazine, vol. 20, no. 2, March-April 1956, pp. 32-33.

Explains the program of Federation of the Handicapped, New York City, which prepares physically disabled for office jobs. Stresses the fact that the Training Institute prepares individual for work which fits his potentialities.

A decade of selective placement. Employment security review, vol. 17, no. 9, September 1950, pp. 3-30, 36.

Articles on employment of the handicapped, methods of selective placement, and the employment of disabled veterans.

Felton, Jean S.

Utilizing the handicapped in industry. Journal of rehabilitation, vol. 16, no. 4, July-August 1950, pp. 21-23.

Successful cooperation between industry and state rehabilitation agencies in employment policies and employee relations demonstrated by three-year-old program between Tennessee Division of Vocational Rehabilitation and Health division of the Oak Ridge National Laboratory.

Gallaudet college.

Government employment for the college-trained deaf person. Washington, 1952. 38 pp. (Bulletin no. 2, October 1952)

Contents: Job opportunities in the federal government for the college-trained deaf person, by Gunnar E. Rath; How to get government employment and advance in it, by Wilson H. Grabill; Federal employment opportunities for the deaf college graduate, by H. Richard McCamant; The new trend, by Victor H. Galloway; Employment of the college-trained deaf in state and local governments, by Richard M. Phillips; Attitudes of management toward college-trained deaf workers in government, by Samuel A. Block.

Harris, Anna F.

A citizens' committee aids placement of the handicapped. Employment security review, vol. 19, no. 5, May 1952, pp. 19-21.

Program set up by Pennsylvania State Employment Service and the Health and Welfare Federation in 1951 to survey and analyze types of disabilities, work capabilities and interests, and possibilities of placement. Among significant facts developed are the high degree of employability of the handicapped and the need for thorough appraisal of each individual for successful placement.

Harvey, Verne K.

Government procedure in hiring the handicapped. Valor, vol. 5, no. 2, August 1956, pp. 3-5, 10.

Presents an excellent picture of the functions and procedures of the U.S. Civil service commission in administering a continuing program of placing physically handicapped persons in jobs for which they are qualified.

Hicks, R. A. and others.

The right man for the right job. Industrial medicine and surgery, vol. 22, no. 3, February 1953, pp. 69-75.

Describes, with illustrative forms, special placement program for limited duty (handicapped) personnel at the Naval Supply Center, Oakland, California.

Industry's problems in placing older handicapped workers.
Monthly labor review, vol. 76, no. 7, July 1953, pp. 756-757.

Discusses placement problems of older handicapped persons and finds that such workers may be preferred for some jobs. The problem is considered more one of the handicapped than one of age.

Jennings, Muriel.

Twice handicapped. Occupations, vol. 30, no. 3, December 1951, pp. 176-181.

Shows how employer attitudes, misconceptions, false beliefs and notions double the handicap of the disabled.

Larke, Alfred G.

Hiring the handicapped: it's good business. Dun's review and Modern industry, vol. 64, no. 2320, December 1954, pp. 36-38.

Gives some practical pointers for dealing with handicapped people. Stresses idea that handicapped should be hired only on same basis as non-handicapped, namely, can he do the job?

National association of manufacturers. Employee relations division.

The handicapped make good employees. New York, 1954, 1 v.

Highlights of National Association of Manufacturers' program to urge business to employ handicapped.

National association of manufacturers. Employee relations division.

Guide for employers in hiring the physically handicapped. New York, 1955. 31 pp.

Discusses successful techniques for utilizing the abilities of the handicapped through sound placement on the job.

National industrial conference board, inc.

The company and the physically impaired worker. New York, 1957. 89 pp. (Studies in personnel policy no. 163)

Experience of selected companies in hiring and retaining physically handicapped employees. Describes problems companies face in utilizing disabled employees, and programs and procedures they have developed to solve these problems.

Odell, Charles E.

The problem of placement. Journal of rehabilitation, vol. 21, no. 6, November-December 1955, pp. 6-8, 16-17.

Analyzes problem of placement of the handicapped pointing out that emphasis has been on placement while no attempt has been made to develop competence in the know-how and technology of utilization of the handicapped.

President's committee on employment of the physically handicapped.

Employment of the physically handicapped; a bibliography, compiled by Joan A. Donnelly. Washington, U.S. Govt. print. off., 1957. 93 pp.

Comprehensive bibliography covering every phase of the question of employment of physically impaired worker. Contains sections on legislation, public assistance, workmen's compensation, rehabilitation centers, government and non-government employment as well as chapters on specific disabilities.

President's committee on employment of the physically handicapped.

This is the President's committee on employment of the physically handicapped. Washington, U.S. Govt. print. off., 1957. 10 pp.

Describes origin, membership, purpose, and organization of the Committee.

Ross, Robert T.

The Ford plan for employing the handicapped. Monthly labor review, vol. 76, no. 12, December 1953, pp. 1299-1301.

Outlines program and some experience gained under Ford's "practical working plan" for employment of the physically handicapped.

Rusalem, Herbert and Milton Cohen.

The job forum technique of placing the handicapped. Occupations, vol. 30, no. 5, February 1952, pp. 343-345.

Use of a panel of executives to help counsel handicapped job seekers, as an effective means of opening new fronts for the disabled and improving possibilities for placement.

U. S. Civil service commission.

A guide for the placement of the physically handicapped. 5th ed. Washington, U.S. Govt. print. off., 1952-55. (Pamphlet nos. 14-1 to 14-4)

Part 1, Aircraft positions; Part 2, Ordnance and ordnance stores positions; Part 3, Shipbuilding positions; Part 4, Positions in five technical agencies.

U. S. Civil service commission.

The supervisor's role in selective placement of the physically handicapped. Washington, 1957. 6 pp.

Outlines development of the program to employ physically handicapped in the federal government, and tells what the supervisor, specifically, can do to support the program.

U. S. Civil service commission.

Untapped manpower; selective placement of the physically handicapped in the federal civil service. Washington, U.S. Govt. print. off., 1956. 8 pp. (Pamphlet no. 16)

Explains in general terms and with specific examples the manner in which the Commission is placing the physically handicapped in government service.

U. S. Department of the air force.

Employment of the physically handicapped. Washington, 1952. 17 pp. (Program supplement no. 14)

Background, methods, and suggestions for developing a program for the selective placement of physically imparied persons.

U. S. Department of the army.

Employment of the physically handicapped. Washington, U.S. Govt. print. off., 1957, 12 pp. (Civilian personnel pamphlet no. 54)

Presents suggestions and techniques for development and maintenance of an active program to employ the physically handicapped.

U. S. Veterans Administration. Department of veterans benefits.

Occupations of totally blinded veterans of World War II and Korea. Washington, U.S. Govt. print. off., 1956. 28 pp. (VA pamphlet 7-10)

Tells how several hundred totally blind veterans of World War II and Korea are employed. Booklet was prepared to aid personnel of Veterans administration to help blind veterans choose, prepare for, and enter suitable vocations.

Viscardi, Henry, Jr.

Can disabled workers meet the demands of automation? Advanced management, vol. 22, no. 7, July 1957, pp. 14-16.

Progress report on an organization called Abilities, Inc., which was founded in 1952. Describes methods by which, in spite of the fact that all its employees are seriously disabled, the company has not only held its own in the competitive subcontracting field, but has prospered.

personnel literature

abstracts of current articles

Administration

Making the Most of Engineering Abilities, Part I. T. E. Shea. *Personnel.* May-June, 1958.

How to maximize our engineering potentials is a complex problem that has been given additional urgency in the face of technological developments behind the Iron Curtain. It calls for two distinct approaches—increasing the number of high-quality engineering graduates and improving the productivity of practicing engineers. The latter approach is of primary concern to management.

First, we must realize that engineering abilities cannot be used in the same way that we use machines or manual skills. A good engineer has what may be called controlled restlessness—a capacity for vigorous criticism and constructive evaluation. This restlessness must be channeled toward useful ends. Second, in a technical operation the outstanding engineer is likely to be promoted to a supervisory position which often does not entail direct engineering work. The immediate effect is a dilution of the engineering force.

Has industry anything to gain by trying to improve engineers who are merely average, or should it concentrate on the superior men? No high correlation between an engineer's academic background and his subsequent achievements has ever been established. Tenacity has often offset limitations in brilliancy, and men of high motivation have overcome overwhelming odds.

The many areas in which a company may work to improve the efforts of its engineers are outlined in an accompanying table under five general headings: (1) relation of engineers to management; (2) training and experience; (3) employment conditions; (4) efficient use of engineer's time; and (5) professional relations. A number of factors are listed under each of these headings, and the author describes in detail what the Western Electric Company is doing in two of these general areas.—George F. Stark.

Attracting Topflight Scientists and Engineers, Part II. Douglas Williams. *Personnel.* May-June, 1958.

The most carefully laid plans for maximizing the potential of engineers and scientists can yield only mediocre results if the company has failed to attract high-caliber men in the first place. What makes a company or research institution the kind of organization for which good engineers and scientists want to work?

A survey was made for one of the largest industrial research laboratories to ascertain its reputation in the scientific and technical fields. The survey took the form of lengthy interviews with representatives from university research departments, independent laboratories, industrial research departments, and government scientific establishments.

From these interviews, they were able to identify the following 13 criteria used by professional people in appraising an institution as an employer. It is not possible to rank them in order of importance.

1. Freedom to publish and to discuss work with other members of the scientific community.
2. Association with and stimulation from high-caliber colleagues.
3. A technically trained management.
4. Freedom to choose the problem.
5. Reputation for scientific advancement.
6. Reputation of the director and the people around him as scientists.
7. Adequate facilities, resources, and lower-level technical assistance.
8. Opportunities for advancement coupled with flexibility in advancement policies.
9. Salary.
10. Security.
11. Suitable living conditions.
12. Individual treatment.

13. Opportunity to continue formal education while working.

An explanation of each criteria is provided by the author. George F. Stark.

Human Relations: Boon or Bogle? Donald R. Schoen. *Harvard Business Review.* November-December, 1957.

Recently some responsible critics have been questioning whether business and business education have gone overboard in their current interest in "human relations." Mr. Schoen's personal conviction is that the field of human relations has important relevance to executive action and business leadership, provided one recognizes that leadership, management, and business action involve more than just human relations.

The essential elements of human relations are: an insistence on the necessity for viewing concrete organizational situations not only in technical and economic but also in social terms, a conviction that you can understand the social process of group behavior only if you are committed to relating yourself to it with a clinical viewpoint, a fundamental belief that the person charged with the responsibility of getting action in group situations both facilitates cooperation and helps people maintain their own integrity if he is able to orient himself clinically to such situations.

Central to such a set of tenets is the concept of a clinical orientation. A leader has learned to approach situations clinically if, among other things, he (1) has an understanding and acceptance of people, (2) has an awareness of and sensitivity to differences between outlooks of individuals, (3) has an ability to respond to and understand the logical content of what is said and the feelings and sentiments implied in words and behavior, (4) has some awareness of himself and of the impact of his behavior on others, (5) understands the nature of the social structure of which he is a part, (6) is realistic about the existence of a hierarchy of authority, responsibility, status, and position in his organization, (7) is able to predict how the organization will respond, and (8) makes intuitive, judicious use of his generalizations about social phenomena.

There are limits to the relevance, appropriateness, and usefulness of human relations to executive action. Human relations and its point of view are not concerned with making everyone happy or sugar-coating harsh reality. Human relations, or the clinical orientation, is not and should not be equated in toto with the job of management or executive leadership. If a person does not have the basic personal characteristics which make him an executive, or potential executive, no amount of concern with human relations *per se* will make him one. There is nothing inherent in human relations which conflicts with other management functions. —Mildred Perlman.

What To Do When An Employee Dies. *Management Methods.* September, 1957.

The death of an employee has traditionally been handled as an unexpected problem which the employer will resolve as the situation arises. A number of firms, however, feeling obligation to those who have rendered long and faithful service, have created definite policy so that the death of an employee can be met by more helpful action than the mere sending of flowers or condolences. In several instances companies send an extra check equivalent to an additional two weeks' or month's salary. The Kroger Company of Cincinnati immediately designates a member of the personnel department to represent the company and confer with the bereaved family, offering assistance with financial and legal problems. The Universal Engineering Company of Frankenmuth, Michigan, offers similar assistance closely tailored to the needs of the survivors. Members of the deceased's family have been hired by Universal when circumstances warranted, and in one case the family of an employee who had been moving to a new home when he died were provided with movers and landscaping to assist them in resettling. Companies such as Crown Zellerbach of San Francisco have formalized their procedures by statements included in the company policy manual so that the news of an employee's death can be met with immediate and purposeful aid at a time when such aid is most needed.—Jane Pugh.

Remploy: An Experiment in Sheltered Employment for the Severely Disabled in Great Britain. J. L. Edwards. *International Labour Review.* February, 1958.

In 1945, the British government, for the first time anywhere, officially formed a government corporation for the purpose of providing sheltered employment for the severely disabled, veterans and non-veterans alike.

Employment is *sheltered* when it is designed to provide temporary employment, under guidance and training, until such time as the worker can take his place in ordinary industry alongside able-bodied workers.

This government corporation, usually referred to by the British as Remploy, although having a broad social welfare objective has been organized and functions on a hardheaded business basis: its Board of Directors are recruited directly from industry and the trade union organizations; it has an aggressive sales organization that operates on a nationwide basis; its financial structure has been carefully planned and revised when necessary; and its recruitment is curtailed or expanded during periods of reduced or increased sales and efficiency.

One of the most interesting aspects of Remploy is that it does not emphasize handicrafts production for the disabled. It has found that ordinary industrial manufacturing offers the best prospects for sales and that the range of work is generally within the capacity of even the most severely disabled.

The success of this departure from ordinary handicraft work of the disabled has been due to several factors: the increased merchanization of Remploy's 90 factories; the breaking down of skilled processes into smaller parts; and the adaptation of machinery to the special disabilities of the workers. This departure has also enabled Remploy to diversify its production and to compete in the open markets with products people really need and are anxious to purchase.

Although substantial numbers of discharged employees return to ordinary industry each year, there are always more replacements than Remploy can handle.—CHARLES J. SETZER.

Classification and Pay

Improving Federal Classification and Pay Systems. John Bamberg. *Personnel Administration.* March-April, 1958.

Two concepts of the federal classification and pay program are prevalent. One is that the federal government should have a basic policy for the whole federal service and the other is that of "regional wage rates."

The federal government should have a single pay policy based upon sound wage economics but this does not mean one system of classification and pay. There are several systems in existence but no body of principles for them, and no agency in authority to challenge their validity. Agencies which use the "locality wage rate principle" should know that "prevailing rates" are not measurable but are compromise figures and are not as valid as genuine wage analysis.

The essential requirements of a solution are (1) a new basic federal law defining fundamental classification and pay policy, (2) a decentralization of responsibility for implementing this policy to organizational levels consistent with other management responsibilities, and (3) a central authority responsible for technical assistance to management and for keeping the policy up to date.

The basic policy should be formulated in law but be limited to true policy material permitting variations according to the different use of the occupation in different operations. It should eliminate the artificial line between "wage board" and "classified" positions; wherein hourly subordinates earn more than their classified superiors.

The concept of "equal pay for equal work" should apply only to persons doing similar jobs in the same line of work (although it is frequently altered by seniority and other factors). Pay should be set according to variable employment situations.

Technical or staff responsibility for pay scales should be decentralized to the departments with further re-delegation of operational program responsibility to managerial levels within the subordinate bureau and field offices.

The federal classification and pay authority should be limited to research, a clearing house between agencies, policy formulation, and legislative recommendations. The authority would conduct a training institute for professional classification and wage analysts. The authority's classification division would review occupational series and grade level definitions developed by the operating offices and approved by the technical staffs in the departments and agencies. These items would become operative within the agencies without formal approval of the authority and would remain operative unless the authority ruled them invalid. The authority's pay division would assign these occupational series to appropriate pay ranges after due consideration of the pay policy, department recommendations, and the wage analysis.

The Classification Act of 1923 and the amendments of 1949 are so out of touch with today's needs and so burdened with

piecemeal and contradictory amendments that no semblance of policy or principle remains. The proposed remedies are a means of constructive and creative thinking toward a solution of classification and pay problems.—EDWARD SCHEINKMAN.

Evaluation

Evaluation of Personnel Operations. Albert H. Aronson. *Personnel Administration.* May-June, 1958.

One approach to the problem of evaluation is the attempt to evaluate a total operation. Another approach is that of using a checklist to determine performance of personnel activities which are believed to be desirable. A different approach is to get objective criteria of performance with relation to specific functions.

These criteria would either be validated scientifically or accepted as significant by informed analysts. An effort to arrive at useful evaluative criteria is illustrated by some of the things that the Division of State Merit Systems of the United States Department of Health, Education, and Welfare does in its merit system reviews of state personnel operations.

One useful index of merit system activities is the ratio between the number of job applicants who file in response to recruitment efforts and the number of employees. Another index is the proportion of provisional appointments. Another measure is the proportion of original appointments from eligible lists as against provisional appointments made prior to the examination.

An index of the time it takes between the closing date for the receipt of applications and the establishment of an eligible list is also calculated. Other objective data that are collected and analyzed relate to refined measures of turnover.

The possibilities of the development of sound and objective criteria are almost limitless though difficult. It is possible to evaluate training, absenteeism, safety and accident rates, the use of sick leave, the speed and quality of promotions and employee attitudes and morale.

A purely statistical approach or even an entirely objective approach cannot fully supplant intensive reviews of personnel management which necessarily involve subjective judgment. Real progress is to be made, however, by developing, so far as possible, objective criteria which can be accepted within the personnel and management fields as valid and practical and which can be translated into improved practices.—ROBERT A. EARLE.

Supervision

Freedom, Authority, and Decentralization. Bennett E. Kline and Norman H. Martin. *Harvard Business Review.* May-June, 1958.

It is probably inevitable that in any organized effort a division of labor, a hierarchy of authority, and a complex network of superior-subordinate relationships will develop.

Management has the responsibility of attaining efficiency and discipline and, at the same time, allowing individuals freedom to display initiative, to create and to express themselves in keeping with our Christian ideals of the dignity of the individual.

The free market system, as the executive sees it, provides freedom for the employees, the customer, and the investor. Others are not so certain and many millions of Americans feel most of their working hours are in the role of the managed which, it seems, is not the same as exercising freedom.

Management generally assumes organization lends itself to efficiency with the more competent rising to positions of greater responsibility and control. This concept ignores the probability that the chief characteristic of the command hierarchy is ignorance, as any one person can know only a fraction of what is going on around him.

It is through the delegation of authority that the most use is made of the individual's drive and skill. Decentralization is rather widely accepted as an ideal form of organization; however, this often leads to the formation of cliques resulting in increased problems of coordination and compromise on decisions. The moral order comes to rest on power alone.

The new decentralization concept relates not to the delegation of authority to act, but to the granting of *freedom* to act. Authority is power with the implication of acting in an approved manner, while freedom to act permits a manager to do the job in his own way. The superior does not abdicate any of his responsibility for getting results and can be as demanding in his standards of ultimate performance as ever but relinquishes a good deal of day-to-day control. He must see his role as a teacher rather than the ultimate authority.

The administration of freedom requires a

comprehensive system of rules in order to ensure a maximum of "elbowroom" for each individual and a maximum of coordinated and efficient action. Subordinates require the full knowledge needed to take action, and must have a general knowledge of the purposes and actions of other departments. Above all, they must be advised of the expectations and actions of associates.

If a realistic atmosphere of freedom is to be built it must permeate the entire organization and become part of the total philosophy and practice of all in management.

Freedom produces a creative spirit of competition provided the superior encourages subordinates to succeed by working to challenging and up-to-date goals and does not listen to, or engage in, connivance and intrigue.

This step towards freedom should be taken not as a result of logical demonstration but because of faith—faith in the Christian attitude toward the individual and faith in the free market system. We can assure freedom to the few who will discover great things only by giving it to the many. —ORVILLE M. MITCHELL.

Training

The Graduate Seminar for Adult Education —An Evaluation. Eugene P. Dvorin. *Personnel Administration.* May-June, 1958.

In recent years there has been a great proliferation of academic programs for public employees. This short article does not seek to survey the field of academic programs, rather it is a review of the problems and implications arising from the seminar conducted by the author at Los Angeles State College. The students in this seminar are from all levels of government and many ranks, with wide ranges of previous training and experience.

This wide range of student backgrounds presents a challenge to the instructor in subject matter, teaching method, and objectives. Often the students have more experience and knowledge than the teacher. The seminar needs to be tailored to their needs, the literature culled for pertinent materials.

The seminar method (featuring reports and discussions by class members) lends itself to this program. The role of the instructor is to suggest fruitful lines of inquiry, to stimulate discussions, and to lead them toward meaningful conclusions. In this seminar the preparation of the traditional weighty paper is replaced by a series of oral reports, scrutinized by the student's colleagues, rather than by the instructor alone.

Such developments have caused alarm among some academicians who fear a lowering of standards and a cheapening of degrees. They fear that the college may become a terminal "trade school" for public employees. Despite such views the trend toward closer cooperation between public officials and academicians continues. The provision of adequate opportunity for self-improvement will lead to a more competent public servant.—HENRY E. HALL.

1958 PPA Abstracters

The following members of the Public Personnel Association have accepted the editor's invitation to serve as abstracters of articles for the "Personnel Literature" section of *Public Personnel Review* in 1958.

Robert A. Earle, Director of Personnel, City of Fort Lauderdale, Fort Lauderdale, Florida

Henry E. Hall, Senior Test Technician, Texas Merit System Council, Austin, Texas

Harry C. Martin, Merit System Director, Commonwealth of Kentucky, Personnel Council, Frankfort, Kentucky

Paul Matthews, Office of the Chairman, Civil Service Commission, Toronto, Ontario, Canada

Orville M. Mitchell, Personnel Officer, Ontario Department of Public Works, Toronto, Canada

Mildred Perlman, Principal Personnel Examiner (Classification), City Civil Service Commission, New York, New York

Jane Pugh, Supervising Examiner, Civil Service Commission, Chicago, Illinois

Jerry C. Riley, Personnel Analyst, California State Personnel Board, Los Angeles, California

Edward Scheinkman, Assistant Personnel Examiner, Department of Personnel, New York, New York

Charles J. Setzer, Assistant Personnel Examiner, New York City Personnel Department, New York, New York

George F. Stark, Regional Representative, State Merit Systems, Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, Kansas City, Missouri

Our Readers Write . . .

• More "People" Flavor?

. . . I can say that I always read the *Personnel News* and the *Personnel Man.* I asked myself why I read them. I believe it is because they are brief, they have a "people" flavor, they have a variety of subject matter. Frequently they raise challenging questions and invite participation.

But I had to admit that only infrequently do I read the *Public Personnel Review.* I think it is as good or better than any personnel journal with which I am familiar. Why then do I so seldom read it? I wonder to what extent it is read.

If it isn't read by a majority of the members, why is it not read? Is it because the articles in it do not contain enough new and radical ideas or fresh points of view? Are the articles written to fill up the magazine, to get the author's name in print, or are they written to supply a need? Are they written as answers to questions raised by members who have "live" problems?

I discussed these questions with colleagues in my own office and outside. I found that my feeling about personnel journals is not unique. We probed our minds and hearts a little to try to discover what may be wrong.

We discussed the attitude of union leaders toward personnel administration. In general, the personnel management goals of unions, personnel administrators, and operating officials should be identical. It is said by some that if management had not been derelict in many ways unions would never have become so strong. We are told to expect more employees to join unions and to expect unions to exercise greater influence. Is this due to the partial failure of personnel people? Is it because union leaders are more dedicated, more creative and imaginative, and more courageous than personnel leaders? Personnel people would say no.

We talked about publications of other professional societies and publications in other fields. We asked ourselves if engineers and doctors read their journals and participate in their professional societies more actively than personnel people do in theirs? We wondered if they have an advantage in that they can readily explore and report new ideas and techniques while we in personnel administration have less occasion to do so.

We talked about some groups that are influenced by the hobby concept, such as the National Rifle Association. Most such groups seem to display more enthusiasm than do professional personnel societies. Their literature appears to be more widely read. Should we expect personnel people to be as enthusiastic about their work as they are about their hobbies? If it is true that we read Popular Mechanics, Popular Science, The American Rifleman, and other "hobby" publications more avidly that we read *Public Personnel Review* and other personnel journals, why is it? Is it because too many personnel people are in the wrong kind of work? Is it because the articles on personnel topics are not as appealing or as well written?

One colleague expressed his thinking in this fashion:

> "Personnel people have three programs: the one they conduct, the one they talk about, and the one they write about. Since the program they write about is often the one they wish they had—with all troubles, problems, and mistakes removed—few people are interested in reading about it. If the program written about contained the problems, mistakes, and human failures that are in the real one, it would be very appealing reading. The true story of people and their behavior is the most interesting story in nature, but few personnel people want to write about it as it is. I think this is because we have an inferiority complex. As a

group we won't face the facts or write about program failures because we think the mistakes made by the people we serve are in fact our own mistakes."

A little different approach to personnel journalism might resolve some of these misgivings. Scientists, psychologists, and historians appear to concentrate in their journals on their experimentations, new techniques, and discoveries. Personnel journals don't seem to contain as much of this kind of writing. Reports of more "live" cases, recognition of outstanding achievement, accounts of grievances and appeals and what happens to them, the results of experimentation with supervisor-allocated jobs, the results of surveys of human relationships and employee opinion, etc., would add interest to personnel journalism. In one survey made at the recent annual convention of the Society for Personnel Administration, 49 per cent of the personnel people who filled out a questionnaire confessed that, "Few personnel people practice in managing their own staffs what they preach to operating officials." (What will operating people think of this?) Perhaps we could avoid the inferiority complex by encouraging more anonymous writing.

As indicated above these thoughts represent group opinion. If the observations expressed here are valid perhaps this discussion of them will be helpful.

Carey Shaw, Jr., Deputy Chief
Civilian Personnel Office
Office, Chief of Staff
Department of the Army

• A Provocative Issue

. . . Congratulations on the July issue of *Public Personnel Review*. It was a most interesting and provocative issue. I made a mistake in glancing at it when it arrived instead of consigning it to the briefcase for homework—and half my morning was "shot" before I put it down!

Robert Gross' article is excellent. With all the talk about the positive approach to personnel administration, I was beginning to wonder if I were way off base in thinking it necessary to spend so much time on the negative or protective approach. To be sure, Connecticut's merit system is 20 years old now and enjoys almost universal lip service, but the sniping at it is constant. Mayor Zeidler's pointed comments on civil service directors as spoilsmen (*Personnel Opinions*, p. 233) also are well worth noting.

Your editorial aroused a number of comments, but I want to concentrate on just one of them. As you know, the 1957 legislature revamped our state civil service setup. In that connection, I would like to inquire about the progress of the PPA Committee on the Organization of the Personnel Function. We certainly could use any information or ideas resulting from the committee's work.

Dudley B. Hall, Executive Director
The Connecticut Merit System Association

• Liked Editorial

. . . Just a brief word to congratulate you on the very fine editorial in the July, 1958, issue of the *Public Personnel Review*.

As you know, the city of Pasadena has had a personnel department that has been completely integrated with management for years. In fact, I know of no other city operating under the merit system as we are that does not have even an advisory board or commission. We feel our system has all the advantages of a civil service system with none of the disadvantages. We believe in it and it is heartening to see growing support for this type of operation.

Theodore P. Morris, Personnel Director
City of Pasadena

• And So Did I

. . . May I have permission to mimeograph and distribute your lead editorial from the July issue of *Public Personnel Review*, "To Be Or Not To Be—Independent?"

I would like to send this article to the Mayor and members of our City Council, and also to the general managers of several public employee organizations in the state. It is not likely that our councilmen will see the article, otherwise, and it is my hope that they will read it.

May I congratulate you on an excellent, well-rounded presentation of the question. We have been able to find very little material by way of diagnosis of what is involved, although we have had considerable

overly-generalized discussion of a possible reorganization.

Here in San Diego the city charter establishes the civil service commission as an independent agency within the framework of a council-manager government. While there have been various proposals advanced to change this setup, our organization strongly favors giving the civil service department an opportunity to demonstrate that it can properly serve management's needs under the existing framework.

Mary E. Harvey, Executive Secretary
San Diego Municipal
Employees' Association, Inc.

• May We Reprint?

. . . The article, "How To Design Reading Comprehension Tests," in your April issue is excellent. If you have reprints available for distribution I would like to have two copies to use in connection with our reading program for top-level department personnel.

Edmund N. Fulker, Director
Reading Improvement Program
Office of Personnel
U. S. Department of Agriculture

. . . We were particularly impressed with the Article by Mr. Jack E. Grant, entitled "Tell the Boss—Don't Ask," in the April issue of the *Public Personnel Review*. We are interested in bringing this article to the attention of our supervisors so that they may profit by it in their day-to-day activities. We, therefore, request permission of the author to reproduce this article in sufficient number to provide a copy for each of our supervisors.

Paul L. Engbretson, Acting Director
Twelfth U. S. Civil Service Region

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Public Personnel Review Index

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